The Nation.

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The Week.

THE serious proposition which is made in the Chicago *Tribune* for such a modification of Mr. Blaine's tariff views, as embodied in his celebrated "Paris message," as will permit revenue-reform Republicans to rally again to his support, merits serious consideration. The propounder of the proposition leaves no doubt as to what he means. He puts it rather cautiously at first by saying that, with "one change, Mr. Blaine's plan would meet fully the present emergency." Then he advances a little, and suggests that, "on mature consideration, he (Blaine) would hardly include the repeal of the tobacco tax in his plan of tariff revision and reduction." This is coming close to the point, and, after a few more sentences of explanation and elucidation, the reader's mind is presumed to have been prepared to receive the full revelation without a shock, and out it comes, as follows: "Doubtless, on careful consideration, Mr. Blaine would strike out the words 'tobacco tax' and insert 'sugar tariff.'" Having once reached the point, the editor's language grows bolder with every sentence: "Mr. Blaine's reference to tobacco as a 'necessity of life,' the tax on which should be repealed, must have been a *lapsus linguæ*. The removal of the tobacco tax would not fit in nor harmonize with his general plan. *The sugar tariff must be what he meant.*" When he had reached this point, the editor's feelings were visibly much lighter. He went ahead with great ease and swiftness to show that, with the repeal of the sugar tax and an enlargement of the free list and a lowering of war duties, which are too high, a tariff reduction would be accomplished in accordance with the Republican national platform of 1884. Mr. Blaine was a candidate on that platform, and why should he not be a candidate again on a similar platform this year? asks the editor, and then answers his own question triumphantly as follows: "Mr. Blaine need only propose the repeal of the sugar instead of the tobacco tax, and he will have a method of tariff reduction to command the hearty approval of revenue-reform Republicans."

After this modification of the Paris message has been accomplished, there will be little difficulty with the other portions. The Chicago reviser points to the fact that Mr. Blaine declared, in one portion of his interview, that what he had said did not imply that there should be no reduction of the national revenue, but the "reverse," and claims that that is sufficient evidence that he is in favor of the reduction demanded by the revenue-reform Republicans. The remark, however, precedes in the message the response which he made when he was asked: "But what about the existing surplus?" That was: "The abstract of the President's message I have seen contains no reference to that point. I therefore make no comment further than to endorse Mr. Fred Grant's remark, that a surplus is always easier to handle than a deficit."

The conservative policy of the Ways and Means Committee in dealing with the tariff is shown in the reported reduction of the duty on copper from four cents per pound merely to two cents. The imposition of any duty whatever on an article of which we are large exporters to foreign countries is a swindle on its face. It serves simply to enable the producers to charge American consumers more than they charge foreign consumers for an American product. It is a fact well known to the trade that at one time the difference as against American consumers was so great that Calumet and Hecla copper was bought in London, imported to New York, and sold here in competition with Calumet and Hecla copper that had never crossed the ocean. The copper monopolists put a stop to this by buying up all of their own copper in foreign markets, and refusing to sell any except to foreign consumers. They had previously killed the copper-smelting works on the Atlantic seaboard by the shameful duty on copper ore, driving the laborers therein out of employment. There is or was an extensive copper-smelting establishment in the suburbs of Boston which was totally ruined by this villanous tariff on copper ore. It was treated by law as though it had been an establishment for the manufacture of counterfeit money. The making of copper in the United States by this process was simply prohibited. What made the matter peculiarly odious was that these seaboard smelting works used American ores in part, mixing them with foreign ores. When they were closed, the market for the American ores was gone, and a monopoly was thus given to those companies which, like the Calumet and Hecla, already had a great natural advantage in the production of the metal. The same tariff had the effect to destroy the manufacture of sheathing metal for ships' bottoms. The sheathing-metal men went to Congress year after year asking for relief, but they got none. All this was done by Congress under the same kind of a threat that the wool-growers are now mouthing—that if the duty on copper was not granted, the copper interest would join the free-traders and knock the whole tariff into flinders.

It is well known that there has been lately formed a "copper trust" on a world-wide scale in Paris. A few persons have combined to possess themselves of all the existing stocks of copper, and of a controlling interest in all the principal copper mines of Spain and Chili. The large American producers have been invited to "chip in," and have probably done so, although naturally they would not proclaim that fact on the house-tops. The best evidence that they have taken a share in the French syndicate is found in the fact that the syndicate is able to carry its heavy load. It would not be able to do so if it were obliged to buy the output of the American mines at the advanced price, in addition to that of all the small mines and half-abandoned mines which are now becoming active under the new stimulus. This is certainly an appropriate occasion for reviving the copper-smelting industry that was so ruthlessly crushed in the year 1868. In any other country than ours, or in an earlier period of our country, the stoppage of copper-smelting by law would have been called a damage to American industry. Here it was called protection.

A contemptible piece of injustice to our importing merchants has been perpetrated in the Deficiency Bill. The common law, up to 1839, and the Federal statutes since 1845, have said that if a collector of customs exacts an illegal rate or amount of duty from an importer, the importer can bring a suit and have a judgment against the collector exacting it. The damages set forth in the verdict or judgment have ever been the same as in any other suit for "money had and received." Interest from the date of the illegal exaction has been computed at the rate in the State where the exaction was made, which in New York may be 7 or 6 per cent., and in California 10 or 8 per cent. Heretofore the Treasury has paid the judgment, including the interest computed by the jury or the court; but, on the advice of Secretary Fairchild, the Deficiency Bill, in appropriating money to pay these judgments, required the Treasury to separate, on judgments, principal from interest, and only pay 3 per cent. interest to an importer, although the legal rate might be twice as much, and the use of the money worth twice as much to the importer. And this, too, when the courts have said, and the Treasury agrees, that the collector was wrong in exacting the money. Mr. Evarts, Mr. Edmunds, and Mr. Sherman all denounced the legislation as indecent, unjust, and unconstitutional. Mr. Allison defended it chiefly because so many importers are aliens who only pay 2 per cent. interest on their manufacturing plant. (Where is that?) The vote on adopting the 3 per cent. clause was 25 yeas to 24 nays, 27 Senators being absent. An amendment was then adopted making it apply only to future cases.

The Senate the other day adopted a resolution referring the President's message on the Pacific railroads to a special committee instead of to the Judiciary Committee. The action was proper enough in itself, but there is food for thought in the following clear statement, by the Washington correspondent of the Springfield *Republican*, of certain considerations which entered into the decision: "It came out in the discussion in the Senate that some of the members of the Judiciary Committee wanted to get rid of the matter because they receive valuable fees from the Pacific roads as attorneys; and, while they are not willing

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to renounce the fees, they apparently think it will appear a little more decent to have the matter go to another committee, and then quietly vote the right way when it comes before the Senate. Mr. Edmunds was one of those who strenuously urged that the subject be referred to a special committee."

The weakness of the whole plea for the passage of the Blair bill was clearly exposed by a question which Senator Dawes of Massachusetts put to its author during the latter's speech on Thursday. Mr. Blair had read a letter from somebody in Georgia complaining that the State did not appropriate money enough to provide sufficient schools, when Mr. Dawes asked, "Why does not the State pay more? It is a rich State." Mr. Blair could make no reply to this pointed question, and his inability to make a reply is the strongest argument which could be brought against his bill. As has heretofore been shown by us, the School Commissioner of Georgia demonstrated more than five years ago that an increase of the State tax, which could even then be made "without unduly burdening the people," would keep the schools open six months a year; and the only reason why this additional State tax has not been levied is because the people have been hoping to get the money from Washington. It is no wonder that candid people who formerly supported the scheme, have been persuaded to change their ground by such proofs of the way in which the bill promotes mendicancy. This change is coming to be reflected in the Senate, where Mr. Kenna of West Virginia, a Southern Democrat who voted for the bill before, now announces his intention to vote against it. Northern Republicans who are inclined to make a similar change need feel no doubt that public sentiment will sustain them, when they find a journal once so earnest in supporting the bill as the *Christian Union* now opposing it.

The Public Printing-Office has long been what the Bureau of Engraving used to be, a place in which Congressmen could conveniently quarter their dependents on the public treasury. The last Republican incumbent, Rounds, was kept in office two years under the present Administration, and then dismissed, and he has since died. His Democratic successor, Benedict, has begun very slowly to reduce his force, and has been dismissing a number of Republicans, which is, of course, causing much irritation among their "influences" in Congress, and they called on him for an explanation, and they did not like his explanation, and demanded that he be investigated. The investigation has been ordered, but has been made to cover Rounds's administration also, which has increased Republican irritation. But this irritation, though natural, is unreasonable. Nothing but good can come of an investigation of the manner in which the office has been managed by both parties. The investigation of the Bureau of Engraving did a world of good, and the report was one of the best civil-service-reform documents ever published. It showed that the office was so packed with supernumeraries forced in by Congressmen, that shelves had actually to be put up on which they could loaf, and doze, and be out of the way, during office hours. Doubtless there is a somewhat similar state of things in the Public Printing-Office.

The *Herald's* reporter in the Lehigh mining region supplies some facts regarding the condition of the strikers, who have now been "out" nearly five months. The picture is a deplorable one, but it might be worse. It would be worse, for example, if these men were in a place where good wages and plenty of work could not be had. But seeing that $2.62 per day average has been and is now offered to them, and that their rejection of it is quite voluntary, the sympathies of the humane are not likely to be greatly enlisted in their behalf, although we cannot fail to pity their children. A physician at Ashton is quoted as saying that the little ones "were in rags, and had neither shoes nor stockings. The wind drove snow through wide cracks in the poor shanties, which were not fit for human beings to live in. The children were not white-faced; it had passed beyond that point. They were blue-faced. There is terrible suffering among the miners now. They and their children are just beginning to feel the pangs of hunger. Very few of the little ones get enough to eat. If these strikes last much longer, death will come to the coal regions in a terrible form." Notwithstanding these self-inflicted sufferings, the reporter says that the miners are perfectly peaceable. They have committed no act of violence. They have not thought of destroying the company's property — blowing up the mines or anything of that sort. Noble forbearance, indeed, seeing that their interest in the property when they choose to work is by much the largest interest of all, and that if it were destroyed they would be out of a job not for five months only, but for all time. "They will see their wives and children die before their eyes," continues this sympathizing writer, "rather than give up what they regard as a struggle for manhood." This must be regarded as a slight exaggeration, judging from the great strike of 1877. Miners are not so greatly different from other people that they will see their wives and children die while $2.62 per day is dangling before their eyes; but they will come pretty near that condition. They cannot be far from it now, if this is a true picture.

Ex-Senator Warner Miller has, according to the Philadelphia *Press*, been making in an interview "a clear statement of the tariff issue, and a logical refutation of the fallacies put forth by the free-trade champions," filling a column and a half. What is new in it is an admission that our industries are no "longer infant industries," and that "only free-traders who desire to ridicule and break down our tariff system talk about our infant industries. The fact is, that the value of our manufactures is greater than that of England or any other country." He also added, when questioned about "free raw materials," that neither they nor anything else of the kind would do the American manufacturer any good as long as he had to pay such high wages as at present. All that was wanted to make this explanation complete was the amount of the high wages which the manufacturer gets back from the workingman in the sale of his goods under the high tariff. This should always accompany a statement of the rate of wages paid in this country, in order to reduce the free-traders to real confusion.

The nomination of Warmoth for Governor of Louisiana by the Republicans of that State indicates that the Republican party of the South has learned nothing in the past twenty years. Warmoth was elected to the Governorship in 1868, and his administration was one of the most disgraceful seen anywhere in the South during the whole reconstruction period. For the Republicans of Louisiana to renominate Warmoth in 1888 is the same thing as it would be for the Democrats of New York to propose Tweed's restoration to power if he were still alive. Northern people who wonder at the weakness of the Republican party in the South ought to have their eyes opened by such incidents as this.

One gets occasionally curious glimpses of the working of the Southern mind in the accounts of the "affrays" in that part of the country. Knoxville, Tenn., is a flourishing community, with all the outward appearance of high civilization, and yet here is what happened there on Sunday morning: The City Council elects the City Physician, but there is an ordinance which provides that he must be a graduate of a medical college; and in order to appoint a certain "Dr." West, who was not a graduate, the Council repealed this ordinance. The Knoxville *Journal* thereupon denounced the transaction in fitting terms through an article written by a local physician. West's son thereupon seems to have concluded, not that he must sue the editor, a Mr. Rule, but that he must shoot him with a pistol and stab him with a penknife. He went to his house to find him on Sunday morning, but, hearing he had gone to church, followed him to St. John's Episcopal Church, and called him back as he was entering the door with his wife. West and his brother and a friend of theirs then set upon Rule, knocked him down, one of them trying to shoot him in the head, and another operating on his back with a penknife. Most Christians here probably would suppose that when Mr. Rule went to church with his wife, he left his revolver at home. Not a bit of it. He had it quite handy in his pocket, and was expert with it, for he shot John West through the body, and Goodman, the friend, through the shoulder, and then William West ran away. The report concludes, grotesquely, with the remark: "The organ drowned the noise of the pistol shots."

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Of all Sunday-school entertainments of which we have ever heard, the oddest was one given in the Warren Street Methodist Episcopal Church (Brooklyn) on Monday week, in the shape of a mock trial in a suit of breach of promise of marriage, brought by "Anatomy Comstock" against "Baby Brownspotter." "The young people who got up the exercise," we are told, "were evidently close observers of the recent Campbell-Arbuckle suit, or, as it is better known, the 'Baby Bunting' and 'Bunnie' trial. The large Sunday-school room was filled by an audience which included small children and the aged, and many came from other churches to see the novel entertainment." The pastor's daughter, "pretty Miss Florence Yarrow," was the leading witness, and "the plaintiff's counsel, wearing a full-dress suit and a gay boutonnière," "danced about the altar as he interposed objections." "Dancing about the altar" is good. Several of the witnesses were in fantastic costumes, and the court officer appeared with a blackened face, and "lambasted" the male witnesses with a stuffed club. The affair, however, was kept "within the limits of propriety," which means that its vulgarity was free from positive indecency. It would probably have been impossible to explain to the audience the unfitness of the whole thing. One of the advantages of being chromo-civilized is, that you can have lots of "innocent amusement" out of things which fill other people with disgust. These same believers, however, are probably very particular about making presents to the Pope.

Dr. Titus Munson Coan delivered a lecture on health at the Cooper Institute on Saturday, in which he warned people against going without overcoats in winter "like the Anglo-maniacs"; but he ought to have added that the Anglo-maniacs are not such fools as they seem, for their coatless condition in the street is apt to be a bit of imposture. They wear substitutes for overcoats underneath in the shape of waistcoats of some kind, which will not injure their figure. The Doctor also, in denouncing water as a frequent cause of disease, departed from that middle path in which, as the Latin poet says, true safety lies, because he laid it down that impure water slew more people than "rum or whiskey." This comparison was particularly odious and entirely unnecessary, because to tens of thousands it will operate as an argument, not for making sure that the water they drink is pure, but for taking rum and whiskey instead of water. All lecturers and authors who compare alcohol as either food or drink with other things, ought to keep in mind the tremendous bias of human nature in favor of rum or whiskey in these latitudes, and temper their arguments accordingly. The danger of impure water can be thoroughly exposed without tacitly recommending another dangerous drink as less dangerous, when it is generally easy to get pure water. Distilled water can be had in this city by any one who is afraid of the Croton, for five cents a gallon, delivered at his house, or he can distil it himself on his own fire for probably far less. Most people, especially the fat, would do well to reduce their consumption of fluids by at least two-thirds.

The prospect now is, that the new High-License Law in Pennsylvania will reduce the number of saloons in Philadelphia alone from 6,000 to less than 3,000. Applications for licenses for this year must all be filed before February 12, and up to the present time only a few more than 1,000 have been filed. The court clerks anticipate a much larger number during the few weeks remaining, but no estimate places the probable total higher than 3,000, and the most competent authorities say it will not go above 2,800. This would give the city a revenue of about $1,000,000. The greatest obstacle which the new law presents to the liquor-dealers is the requirement that each applicant shall have as bondsmen "two reputable freeholders of the ward or township," each of whom "must own unencumbered real estate worth over $2,000, and must not be engaged in the manufacture of liquor." No bondsman is allowed to sign more than one application. This requirement prevents the brewers from taking out licenses in the names of liquor-dealers, and is doing much more than the $500 license fee to reduce the number of saloons.

A recent statement in the Providence *Journal* shows the complete defiance of the prohibitory liquor law which is displayed by the saloon-keepers in the largest city of Rhode Island. Accurate statistics are given, by which it appears that there are 125 more places in the city where liquor is sold than there were under the former license law. There is no longer any pretence of secrecy made about the traffic. The saloons, which under the license law were always closed at midnight and were never open on Sundays, are now nearly all open twenty-four hours a day during a seven days' week, and many of them do their heaviest business on Sundays. There is apparently no effort whatever made to enforce the law, and there are no signs of a public protest against its nullification. The *Journal* also publishes information about the condition of affairs in some of the larger villages and towns of the State, showing that the law is no better enforced there. "Reference to the prohibitory law," says the *Journal*, "is treated in the same manner as the quoting of a popular slang phrase is, and mere allusion to the probability of any effort being made to enforce it is laughed at as something absurd." Rhode Island is, in short, having an experience with the free and untaxed sale of liquor.

One of the most curious phases of the transformation which the Republican party has been undergoing for some time past, is the difficulty which many of the organs find in adjusting themselves to the new relations which sprang up in 1884 between the organization and the "slums." The campaign of 1884 changed all that. For the first time in its history the Republican party then presented a candidate who repelled the support of those districts in the great cities most famous for the intelligence of the population. The Twenty-first Assembly District of New York is known as the Murray Hill district, and always used to be depended upon for a large Republican majority. In 1880 it gave Garfield 4,642 votes and Hancock only 3,533—a Republican plurality of 1,109; but in 1884 it gave Blaine only 4,080 votes to 4,641 for Cleveland—a Democratic plurality of 561. The First Ward of Brooklyn, which includes the Heights, represents the same sort of population and had a similar political record. In 1880 it gave Garfield 2,272 votes and Hancock only 1,725—a Republican plurality of 547; but in 1884 it gave Blaine only 1,736 votes and Cleveland 2,234—a Democratic plurality of 498. Wards 9, 10, and 11 of Boston include the Beacon Hill and Back Bay districts, and had always been "Republican strongholds." In 1880 they gave an aggregate of 4,072 votes for Garfield and only 1,805 for Hancock, the Republican vote being more than double the Democratic; in 1884 they gave Blaine only 2,918 votes and Cleveland 3,153, transforming the Republican plurality of 2,267 in 1880 into a Democratic plurality of 235 in 1884.

It is a well-known fact that when, on the evening of the last Presidential election, the returns came into the newspaper offices from such parts of New York as Murray Hill, and of Brooklyn as the Heights, it was conceded by all intelligent judges, who reasoned upon the basis of previous contests between the parties, that Cleveland must have carried New York State by a large plurality. When the Twenty-first Assembly District of New York reported that Cleveland had secured 561 plurality where Hancock was beaten by 1,109, and the First Ward of Brooklyn that Cleveland had 498 plurality where Hancock was beaten by 547, it was taken for granted that Blaine must be overwhelmingly beaten. But the Blaine men would not concede this. "Wait till you hear from the slums," they said, "and you will find that the Republican candidate has made great gains." It turned out as they had predicted. The First Ward of New York had given Garfield only 1,885 votes; it gave Blaine 2,275. The Fourth Ward had given Garfield only 1,543; it gave Blaine 2,390. The Second Ward had given Garfield only 1,146; it gave Blaine 2,130, or almost twice as many. It was the same way in Brooklyn, the Twelfth Ward, for instance, perhaps the "slum" ward *par excellence*, giving Garfield only 686 votes and Blaine 928. Moreover, it has always been claimed by the Blaine men that they lost many thousands of votes in the "slums" of New York and Brooklyn, which would otherwise have gone to their congenial candidate, through Mr. Burchard's famous remark. All this should teach Republican organs that the time has gone by for contemptuous references to the "slums," such as we find in an editorial article in the Cleveland *Leader*. The truth is, that the Republican editor who now talks in the old-fashioned strain of the "slums," is but little better than a Burchard himself.

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AN IMPOSSIBLE CANDIDATE.

THE temporary recognition of Gov. Hill as a Presidential possibility is due to two causes: the first is his own pertinacity in thrusting himself forward as a candidate at every opportunity, and the second is the present dearth of topics to write about in the newspaper offices. Of actual standing as a candidate, the Governor has never had less than he has to-day. If he were to stop wire-pulling and intriguing, what is called his boom would disappear instantly. He has never had any following as a Presidential candidate outside New York State, and his following here is made up entirely of men who are dissatisfied with the President because he is too much of a reformer. This following is too weak to make a showing at the polls, or in any other way in which the popular voice gains expression; but every now and then it comes to the front in some kind of a committee contest. As the President refuses to meddle in such contests, the Governor, having no such scruples, has matters largely his own way, and he is usually able to make a sufficient show of strength to claim that if he is not stronger than the President in his own State, he is at least a rival.

Whenever he makes a demonstration of this kind, as he did last week, when he was able, after months of underground political manœuvring, to tie the Democratic State Committee upon the question of electing a member of the National Committee, the Blaine Republican press become fairly hilarious, and really outdo the late Butler organ, the *Sun*, in their eagerness to make the Governor the next Democratic nominee for the Presidency. At the same time the Governor himself hastens to assure everybody that there is no rivalry between himself and the President, that the best of feeling exists between them, and that these little contests are not any of his doings, but are the outcome of the irrepressible zeal of his enthusiastic followers. We presume that if the real truth were to come out about the Governor's scheming, it would be seen that he has little expectation of making himself a Presidential candidate in the near future, and is, in fact, only seeking to make his renomination for Governor sure.

It requires little acuteness of observation to see why the Blaine people are eager for Hill's Presidential candidacy. He represents in politics precisely the opposite of all that gives the President his great strength. The latter stands as the representative of courage, convictions, and high purposes in public life. The former is the best type now remaining of the Machine politician who utterly despises principle in politics, and trusts all to intrigue. It is impossible to imagine Gov. Hill vetoing the pension grab or issuing the tariff-reform message. He showed his contempt for such appeals to the intelligence and conscience of the people when he hastened to confer office upon Sterling, the liquor-dealer, whom the President caused to be kept out of a place in the Custom-house. Nobody knows better than the Blaine advocates what the effect of Hill's nomination would be upon the political standard of the next national campaign. It would lower the whole contest at once to the Blaine level of morality. It would produce precisely the situation which they desire, that is, a "choice of evils." There is no situation which they would prefer to that. They could then nominate their man with a hope of electing him, for they could say to the thousands of Republicans who now are prepared to vote for Cleveland in preference to Blaine: "Admitting that there are some things about our candidate which are objectionable, you cannot deny that he is a better man than Hill." Then, too, with Hill and Blaine in the field, the Independents and Mugwumps would "be out in the cold," for they would either have to "vote in the air" or not vote at all, and that, we need not say, is a contingency for which every good Blaine man is longing.

But there was never so little chance of its arriving as there is to-day. The country is not going to move backward in its political sentiment. Mr. Cleveland was nominated for the Presidency in 1884 because he had given promise of those higher qualities in public office of which he has since furnished most conclusive proof. The sentiment which forced his nomination then, and forced it upon an unwilling party, is not only a thousand times stronger to-day, but it has the willing support of an overwhelming majority of the Democratic party. No competent political observer can question these facts: There is not a State in the Union which shows the slightest disposition to send anything else than a Cleveland delegation to the next National Convention. If by indefatigable wire-pulling Gov. Hill were able to get control of the delegation from New York, it would do him no good. The voice of the rest of the country would overwhelm its vote and nominate Cleveland by acclamation.

A significant sign of this irresistible tendency of the party was furnished by the action of the Democratic State Committee of Massachusetts on Saturday last. It was only last September that the Democratic Convention of that State ventured to oppose the President's policy in their platform and candidate. The crushing defeat which they met at the polls in November showed them their error, and on Saturday they declared that the Democrats of the State were a "unit in their support of President Cleveland in the policy recommended by him in his last annual message to Congress"; that they "believe it to be the duty of Democrats throughout the United States to advocate, support, and insist upon the adoption of the principles enunciated therein as the great issue upon which the Democratic party, with its candidates in the approaching Presidential election, can achieve an overwhelming victory at the polls." That is a revelation of the new spirit which is behind the President in his own party. His course has given them what they have not had until now, enthusiasm for him as their leader, and they are not only willing, but eager, to renominate him.

"ROYALTY" COPYRIGHT AGAIN.

As stated in a prefatory note by the editor of the *North American Review*, it was Mr. Gladstone's suggestion that the English discussions of Mr. R. Pearsall Smith's copyright scheme should be followed by an expression of opinion from American authors. Accordingly we have, in the January number of the above journal, a restatement of the "royalty" proposal in an article entitled "Anglo-American Copyright," to which comments are appended. Mr. Smith's second paper, though said to contain his "most matured views" on this subject, seems to be but a rehash of his former contributions, with nothing new added either by way of argument or illustration, unless we dignify as such the figures at the foot of page 71—said to be from a "responsible printer's estimates," but which do not even satisfy the demands of correct addition—and the rough woodcut on page 76, which, we presume, is offered as a facsimile of the proposed authors' stamps. The figures referred to are intended to demonstrate that when the selling price of a book is increased beyond 20 cents, a disproportionate per cent. of the profit goes to the publisher. But, in the first place, it is a mere assumption that the 20-cent issue will number 20,000 copies; and if the edition is less than this, the cost of production per copy is at once increased. Doubtless a considerable number of reprints of popular novels may reach a sale of this or even a greater number of copies, but it is unsafe to assume that a book will sell in such large numbers because its price is put at 20 cents. Mr. Smith is himself authority for the statement that the publishers of the "Franklin Square Library" have not found that publication profitable, which would go to prove that the sale of a large proportion of the books in that popular series has been less than 20,000 copies.

In the second place, Mr. Smith's readers should have been told that for the 20-cent book 2 cents remains to be added by the purchaser to secure to the author his royalty, while in the case of the $1 and $1.50 books, these being the present usual prices (copyright money included) for popular copyrighted works, 15 per cent., in the case of popular authors, or 15 cents and 22½ cents, respectively, are to be deducted from the profits set out in the table as going to the publisher, these sums being paid out of said profits to the author. Furthermore, one important item in the publisher's account has been overlooked entirely, viz., the cost of carrying on the business of selling the author's productions. This represents, upon good authority, not less than 15 per cent. upon the retail price of each book ventured upon, or 22½ cents in the case which Mr. Smith instances as showing the most disproportionate profit to the publisher. Subtracting these two fixed expenditures from the 58 cents profit estimated in his tables, the publisher's net profit is reduced to 13 cents, or 9½ cents *less* upon each copy than is paid to the author.

We have taken Mr. Smith's figures as they

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stand, but before any inferences can safely be drawn from the prices given by the "responsible printer" as to the cost of producing the various parts of a book, one would need to know the kind and quality of book-work he is accustomed to do, for there is often a striking difference in the material and make-up of different books, a difference which frequently means a considerable expenditure both of thought and money. As to the retailer's profit of 60 cents, every book-buyer knows that the book whose nominal price is $1.50 is really sold for $1.25 or $1.20, so that while each author secures at least 15 cents, and the popular author 22½ cents, profit on every copy sold, the combined profit of publisher and retailer is but from 43 to 55½ cents. Mr. Smith ought, therefore, in fairness to refrain from the reiteration of his favorite but unjust statement that seven-eighths of the profits on a book goes to the venders and only one-eighth to the author.

In the introductory note by Mr. Rice a telegram from Mr. Gladstone is printed, in which he repeats the hope expressed by him in the *Nineteenth Century* magazine for an international copyright between England and the United States. He thinks that it should be copyright by royalty, and expresses the belief that the method of it cannot be too difficult for practical men to adjust. Aside from Mr. Gladstone's assent, of the fourteen letters appended to Mr. Smith's article, only two—by Mr. Moncure D. Conway and Mr. Robert Ellis Thompson—are for, while eight are decidedly against the proposal. The remaining four are non-committal. Of these the first is by Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, who looks upon the proposal as a special issue over which the general question of international copyright may be fought as well as on any other ground. "A wrong remains to be righted, and any step tending towards that result is better than leaving it undisturbed." Mr. Whittier does not think it a complete solution of a difficult question "involving moral as well as financial considerations," but he believes it worthy of attention. No plan is too radical for Mr. W. D. Howells, who is in favor of "any and every scheme to do justice to foreign authors." He admits his inability to judge the practical workings of the stamp notion, but nothing seems to him so unpractical in the long run as the "present system of pillage." Mr. Julian Hawthorne says that he can advocate the royalty proposal only when it results in raising the price of reprints to equal the cost of native American works; but as it is avowedly urged in order to secure the direct opposite, namely, the lowest possible price for the foreign work, Mr. Hawthorne's letter must be ruled out as irrelevant.

The two advocates of the system offer very little in the way of argument. Mr. Conway is satisfied with rather inconsequent fault-finding, and the efforts of the Authors' Copyright League to secure an equitable law are characterized as a "platonic dispute about the ideal copyright," which is obstructing the saving of "millions" to literary men by means of "an emergency measure which, besides its practical advantages, establishes the principle of property in brain-product as a foundation for future enactments." And Mr. Thompson, although expressing himself as "keenly alive to the injustice done to foreign, and still more, to American authors by the absence of any law to prevent the pirating of English books," curiously enough finds in a plan which legalizes this very "pirating," a solution of the copyright problem "which secures all interests at once." In what respect he supposes the status of native authors will be improved it is difficult to imagine; but he apparently does not really mean *all* interests, for he seems to realize that "manufacturers of books" will not consider theirs secured by the scheme, and announces that they will oppose it "on both sides of the ocean."

The reasons urged by the American opponents of Mr. Smith's plan may be briefly digested. The Hon. John Bigelow not only thinks it unsound in principle and mischievous, if not disastrous, in practical operation, but, further, unconstitutional, in that it contemplates the practical confiscation of a portion, at least, of every author's property in his books to private use without compensation. As American publishers have pronounced the scheme impracticable, according to Dr. Edward Eggleston, and as it is held in detestation by authors, it cannot be adopted; and he contends that, *if* adopted, it certainly would lead to efforts being made to abolish domestic copyright for the purpose of cheapening books, thus imperilling the very existence of American literature. Mr. Lloyd S. Brice is also strongly impressed with the danger threatening our native literature, and is therefore prepared heartily to endorse any plan which would foster it by offering protection to American authors. President Gilman considers that there is the same objection to the measure that there is to every form of compromise, and concludes that the only lasting remedy is a "thorough protection of an author's property by a just plan of international copyright." Mr. G. P. Lathrop criticises various details of the plan, pointing out the practical difficulty and expense the English author would be put to in attempting to keep a supply of stamps suitable for use for the various editions arbitrarily priced by each new reprinter, and the utter impossibility of any one in England keeping track of the multifarious reprinters in this country; and he considers Mr. Smith's statement that "the more publishers compete, the better it is for the authors," to be delusive.

Mr. C. D. Warner's reply is exceedingly sharp. He considers that Mr. Smith's argument against international copyright is an argument against all copyright, and pronounces his plan impracticable and not worth discussion. He claims for the author his right to control his literary property, subject to local laws and regulations, exactly as he now controls any other kind of property he may possess. Mr. Warner does Mr. Smith injustice, however, in supposing that the latter has any connection with the protectionist opponents of copyright. Mr. Smith's plan is, so far as any one in the United States is concerned, original with himself. Mr. R. W. Gilder speaks as well for the Copyright League as for himself, in opposition to a plan which he considers objectionable on account of its impracticability, and also on account of its being false and dangerous in principle; and he deprecates the *quasi* support of it by English authors as likely to hinder the realization of the present fair prospects for equitable international copyright legislation. The reply of Mr. C. E. Norton is good enough and short enough to be quoted entire: "Neither the plan nor the mode in which it is presented meets my approval. I am unable to understand how any honest man can approve a plan which, by its inventor's own admission, is not based upon the rights of the question."

The unexpected opposition exhibited towards his scheme in America has induced Mr. Smith to announce publicly that he will not press it upon the notice of Congress, but leave the field free for the combined efforts of the Authors' and Publishers' Copyright Leagues and the friends of unrestricted copyright legislation. This last is something very different from his proposed law entitling the alien owner of literary property to a totally different kind of legal protection from that already accorded to the native author—a state of things which could result only in great confusion and ultimate injustice and wrong. Mr. Smith admits that his method can only apply to the comparatively few most popular works, and if he will carefully scrutinize the list of these, he may perhaps convince himself that they are not the very best books to cheapen in price for the sake of securing their greatest possible distribution among the masses. It is a laudable desire to wish to educate the poorest of our people by bringing *good* books within their reach at the cheapest possible *honest* price, but a little reflection should convince Mr. Smith that that is something entirely aside from the subject of copyright, international or domestic. He has himself instanced France as a country where new books are issued in cheap form (and we may add in good form), and sell in such large numbers as to pay both authors and publishers a handsome return; and yet this is done under what Mr. Smith would call a "monopoly" copyright law. There is a field for his intelligent activity in trying to bring about a similar state of things in this country, and in the meantime he should find consolation in the fact that he has the whole volume of English literature from Chaucer to Tennyson to draw upon for his cheap reprints for educational purposes, and that he can use this vast material with the least possible injustice to any one.

"*BOOKS THAT HAVE HELPED ME.*"

DURING the past year or two an enormous amount of attention has been given both here and in England to the business of advising people what to read. It began in England with a piece of newspaper enterprise, which consisted in getting men of distinction in politics or literature to make out lists of "one hundred books" which should form the library of a man who, for any reason, was obliged to confine himself to this number. It then took the form of ac-

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counts from various people, some distinguished and some not, of "books that have helped me," and in this form it bids fair to last indefinitely. Nearly everybody who can read can make out a short catalogue, if not exactly of books that have helped him, of books which he thinks, or would like other people to think, have helped him.

The number of those who wish to tell the world about these helping books, too, seems to be practically unlimited, so strong and widely diffused is the desire to let other people into one's personal experience on almost any subject. It has been said that every man, and for that matter every woman, can furnish the plot of one novel constructed out of the principal events of his own life; and there is one story which even the most uneducated body who can talk freely, loves to tell, namely, the story of his own doings, what he has seen, or suffered, or accomplished, and especially the victories he has achieved in argument. There is, in fact, nothing more enjoyable in the narratives of unlettered people than their accounts of contentions they have had, in which the adversary was reduced to hopeless absurdity and shut up by a few pregnant remarks.

When one gets up among the literates, one finds a corresponding readiness to let the public into the secret of their intellectual growth. Hardly any one who has risen in the smallest degree into public notice is above the harmless vanity of telling the utterly obscure man how fame is achieved, or the foundation stones of even moderate greatness laid. The millionaire recalls his diligence as a boy in sweeping out the store on cold winter mornings, the lawyer his wonderful assiduity in copying papers and reading very early editions of law-books by the firelight, and the literary man the toil expended on his first verses, and his secret joy at seeing them in the "poet's corner" of the country newspaper. There is nothing sweeter than the reflection that one's own career is a standing encouragement to the young and friendless to be up and doing, with a heart for every fate.

There is probably, however, no more melancholy fact in human affairs than the infrequency with which any individual man's experience is of use to anybody else. If we profit by experience at all, it seems to be mainly by the experience of the human race, or of our particular nation, rather than by that of any individual friend, or relative, or preceptor. No matter how much we may respect or admire Brown or Jones, or even father or uncle, we generally take care not to follow his advice in the management of our own lives. Everybody who has had much experience as a counsellor knows well that people usually seek advice in order to get encouragement in pursuing a course on which they have already determined. In truth, it may be said that most of us are constitutionally incapable of doing well what other people think best, unless we also ourselves think it best. To follow successfully a plan traced for us by somebody else, it has generally to be a plan which does not concern us except as another man's agent or servant, and has his satisfaction for its supreme object.

Much the same thing may be said about "the books that have helped me." All the articles which have been written about them tacitly assume that what helps me will help you, or that Brown, on learning where Jones got his mental provender, will order home a supply of the same, and live on it. Nothing can well be further from the truth. Wherever these articles do not gratify a harmless vanity, they are interesting simply as the literary experience of one more or less respectable human being, and nothing more. Every man who loves books and reads them, and makes any good use of them, reads in the line of his own tastes and temperament and pursuits. He is not, and for the most part cannot be, helped by another man's books, supposing books to be anything more than repertories of facts. All must, of course, go to the same sources of information, or, in other words, must consult the same books of reference, but every man who reads for culture, or for encouragement, or inspiration, or power, must choose his own books. Books that have helped Brown may be interesting to Jones because he loves Brown and likes to watch the working of his mind; but they will not necessarily help Jones. In fact, the time he spent on them might be time utterly wasted, unless there existed the closest similarity in pursuits and in character between the readers.

We wish most sincerely that the subject were of more importance than it is, because we fear that although the reading of books grows, the search for books that will help one does not greatly increase. By far the larger portion of the increased sale of books is due to the demand for books that will amuse or kill time. By far the greater portion of whatever love of reading exists in the world, is gratified by newspapers and periodicals. It was when books were scarce and little known that readers hesitated and sought counsel in choosing them. The general testimony of publishers is that the books which really help people are not sought after by any means in proportion to the growth of population and the spread of the reading art.

THE TRANSCASPIAN RAILROAD.

SEVEN years ago Mr. O'Donovan made his celebrated journey to the Merv Oasis—a district up to that time practically untrodden by civilized men, and separated from the Caspian Sea by stretches of half-desert country inhabited only by robber tribes. To-day the region from the Caspian to Merv, and beyond it as far as the Oxus, is traversed by a well-built railroad, with over 600 miles of line already open for traffic, and 1,500 cars in actual use; with a large station in each oasis, and with smaller ones scattered along the route. A journey which seven years ago could not have been made by any traveller under any conditions is now regularly accomplished in twenty-eight hours. The Oxus—but yesterday a practically unknown river—is now crossed by a twelve-span railroad bridge which is fast approaching completion. The year 1888 will see the ancient Tartar cities of Bokhara and Samarcand brought within three days' journey from the Black Sea, or within a week from St. Petersburg. American enterprise has done wonders in the way of building railroads in advance of civilization, but it has done nothing like this.

The district east of the Caspian Sea—bounded by Siberia on the north, by Persia and Afghanistan on the south, and reaching eastward as far as the somewhat vaguely defined line of the Chinese Empire—is still marked on most of our maps by the general name of Independent Tartary, though the greater part of it now belongs to Russia. It is, roughly speaking, 600 miles from north to south, and 1,200 from east to west; its area is therefore about one-quarter that of the United States. It has formed a most important neutral ground between the British and Russian possessions in Asia; for though it barely touches the northern extremity of India itself, and that at a point secure from attack, it has been the chief protection of Afghanistan from Russian invasion.

In the northwestern part of this district lies the land-locked Sea of Aral, into which the Amu or Oxus—the two names are used indiscriminately—flows from the southeast. The region to the north and east of the Oxus is comparatively fertile and not altogether uncivilized. It contains at least two cities of some importance — Bokhara and Samarcand. But western and southern Tartary is a desert — not even a region of steppes, like other parts of central and northern Asia, but a sand desert without vegetation, except in a few oases like those of Gök-Tepe and Merv in the south.

It is the custom of English writers to represent Russia's vigorous policy in this region as being due to a desire to attack India. What may be the motives which actuate Russian diplomacy at present, it is impossible to say; but there is no trace of any such premeditated plan in the early steps by which Russia was led into her present position. Making all due allowance for the partisanship of Russian reports, there is every reason to believe that she was forced to advance in this direction by the impossibility of maintaining either a peaceful or a purely defensive attitude towards the Turkomans of this region. The Turkomans would come out and plunder the Russian settlements at the north of the Caspian Sea. On the approach of regular troops they would run away. There was no way to chastise them except to follow them into their homes, where they would be forced to fight. This was what led Russia into this region. The first expeditions of this kind were in 1871 and 1872; they were apparently not ill-managed, but the forces were too small to accomplish the object in view. A larger expedition, in 1877, was discreditably beaten. The Russian Government was now aroused to the fact that it had an enemy of some power to contend with, and, as soon as the Turkish war was over, Gen. Skobeleff was sent to bring the matter to a conclusion. Against such an officer the Turkomans had no chance. He forced his way to the strong-

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hold of Gök-Tepe, and destroyed the fighting power of the tribes of southwestern Tartary by what was little short of a wholesale massacre.

It was in this campaign of 1879, and at Skobeleff's demand, that the Transcaspian Railroad was first begun. He felt that he needed it in a campaign in the desert as a means of transporting supplies. But there seems to be no evidence that he regarded it as other than temporary in its purpose, or that he expected it to be continued further than the very short distance which had been necessary for the immediate objects of the campaign. At any rate nothing was done for five years, and the Russians seemed to have abandoned any idea which they might have had of a systematic eastward movement at this point. They were actually disbanding some of their auxiliary forces in this region, when the action of the Merv Turkomans, in putting themselves under the protection of Russia, roused them to new activity in this direction.

The extension of Russian authority over Merv gave rise to much controversy and some warlike talk. But, while both parties were talking, Russia was acting, and was acting in the most efficient way by extending her railroad to Merv and beyond it. Work was begun in May, 1885, under the direction of Gen. Annenkoff, one of the ablest Russian engineer officers, who was already familiar with the country, having been with Skobeleff in the campaign of 1879. Operations were pushed with the utmost rapidity. The Russians are said to have pressed no less than 30,000 Turkomans into the work of railroad building; and, what is still more remarkable, these Turkomans seem to have worked efficiently. The location was easy; the only difficulty in construction was due to the looseness of the sand, and this they succeeded in consolidating by a plaster made of loam and Caspian Sea water. The track-layers were accommodated in movable cars, which furnished both kitchen and barracks, and which were pushed out into the desert as fast as the line was completed. The petroleum wells of Baku, on the Caspian, furnished a cheap and effective fuel. The road is already open for traffic for two-thirds of the distance to Samarcand. Next summer will probably witness its completion.

The line starts from the harbor of Uzun Ada, on the east shore of the Caspian, in latitude 39° 35′ (the name is not marked on any of the ordinary maps). It at first runs E. S. E. for over 300 miles, passing through Gök-Tepe and Askabad, and finally reaching Dushakh, situated in long. 60°, lat. 37° 20′. Here it comes so near the Afghan frontier that it can no longer continue its southward progress, and turns a trifle north of east, to Merv, a hundred miles further. Thence it runs northeast more than 200 miles to Bokhara, crossing the Oxus at Tcharjui. Its further course to Samarcand is almost due east. For military purposes the location could hardly be improved. It is not aggressively hostile to any one; it runs parallel to the Afghan frontier; but this parallelism is really precisely what is wanted, for it will enable Russia to choose her point of attack. A branch from Dushakh towards Herat—the two places are little more than 200 miles apart—and another up the Oxus, from Tcharjui to Tashkurghan, would each give Russia a line of attack. More than this, if the two existed side by side, she would be able so to mask her movements as to leave an enemy in doubt as to the position of her main force until the blows were actually struck.

What will be the effect of all this upon the relations of England and Russia in Asia, it is hard to say. For the moment it gives Russia a dominant influence on the Afghan frontier. But if it causes the English authorities to discard once for all the idea of checking Russia on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, it will be a gain to England in the end. In the first place, England will see that the only defence on which she can really rely, is her own defence of her own frontier in India. And, further than this, should it really come to a war between the two Powers, the one that fights with Afghanistan at its back will be weaker instead of stronger on that account. More will be lost by distance from home than would be gained by any support which the Afghans can give. If England will look these facts squarely in the face, and make up her mind to protect herself against Afghanistan, rather than Afghanistan against Russia, it will be best for all parties concerned.

THE ITALIANS AT MASSOWAH.

THE Italians were induced in 1885, probably under the influence of the tradition left by the interference of the Piedmontese in the Crimean war, to take a hand in the struggle of the British with the Sudanese, by sending 800 men to occupy Assab, on the Red Sea. For one reason or another the expedition stopped at Massowah, which may be called the port of Abyssinia, at which many of the great routes from the interior concentrate. By the time it had got fairly settled, however, the British had retreated from the Sudan, and the Italians were left to work out their own salvation in their own way. So they determined to form a colony, which should do something to counterbalance the seizure of Tunis by the French, and form a centre of Italian influence in eastern Africa. Their arrival was viewed with some suspicion by the Abyssinians, but they made, by sending presents and negotiators, strong efforts to establish good relations with the King, or Negus, as he is called, but without much success. So they went on during the year 1886 improving and fortifying Massowah, and establishing posts in the interior on the great roads, forty or fifty miles out, without any other disturbance than raids from small bands of marauders.

But early in 1887 the Negus got out of patience, and called on the Italian general in command, Gen. Gene, to evacuate these posts, and, on meeting with a refusal, despatched his head man, Ras Alula, with 6,000 men, to clear the Italians out of one of them called Saati. Ras Alula was, however, driven off after a three hours' fight, in which he lost heavily and the Italians had only four killed. He took his revenge the following day by falling with 20,000 men on a detachment of 500 Italians which was marching to reinforce Saati. The Italian square was broken by the Abyssinian charge, very much as the British were by the Zulu charge at Isandhlana, and came near being once or twice in the Sudan, and the force was massacred to a man, after eight hours' fighting. This misfortune led to the withdrawal of most of the advanced posts, which, however, got back safely to Monkulla, a fortified suburb of Massowah.

With this warning as to the serious character of the undertaking, the Italian Government continued through the remainder of the year 1887 to send out reinforcements, until it had accumulated at Massowah and the environs a force of 25,000 men, with fifty guns, commanded by Gen. di San Marzano. An attempt of the British to mediate, through a consul who visited the Negus for the purpose, has ignominiously failed, the mediators barely escaping with their lives, and both sides are now preparing for the conflict which seems inevitable. The Italians are in hopes that Ras Alula will gather up the Abyssinian army and come down to the coast to attack them. If he does this, they expect to be able with their advantages of armament and discipline to make short work of him. But if he refuses, and hangs back, and confines himself to cutting off intercourse with the interior, and attacking outposts and convoys, and shutting up the Italians in Massowah, which an Arab proverb compares to "hell" for heat and unhealthiness, then indeed the situation will for Italy become very grave.

As yet Ras Alula has shown no disposition to accommodate the Italians by fighting on the coast. If this state of things should be prolonged, they would have to organize an expedition to reach the high plateau on which the kingdom of Abyssinia lies, through the mountain gorges by which it is on all sides surrounded. What the Abyssinian forces amount to can of course only be guessed at in a vague way. They are supposed to have about 15,000 Remington rifles which Ras Alula has taken from the Egyptians in various encounters, and to have bought as many more. Then they took 500 of the new Weteli rifles from the Italians whom they massacred at Dogali; so that if they can get ammunition, it may be said that they will have about 25,000 well-armed troops. A writer in the London *Daily News*, who accompanied the British expedition under Lord Napier to Magdala in 1868, says that if the Negus could turn out all his fighting men, he would probably muster 100,000 men. But he is not likely to do anything near this. Theodore never was able to get together more than 8,000 to oppose Lord Napier, but it is true that a great many of the local chiefs were hostile to him, and aided the invader with provisions and transport. The best calculations that can be made do not put the force which would oppose the Italian advance, day in and day out, at over 20,000 men. Any reinforcements it might receive would be peasantry armed with spear and shield only. To get to the Abyssinian plateau, which is cool, exceedingly healthy, and well watered, the Italians

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would have a march of about one hundred miles, mostly through mountain passes, in which they could be annoyed a good deal, but not seriously impeded. Once on the plateau, they would have only the difficulty of supplies to contend with, but this, it is supposed, would be very serious if the natives were unfriendly. Lord Napier had the good will of the tribes, who were mostly in revolt against Theodore, and were assured that the British would withdraw as soon as the King had been chastised, and he thus had a market in his camp every evening.

The Italians, on the contrary, are believed to have come to stay, and how this would affect their fortunes remains to be seen. They have all the latest "wrinkles" in logistics, their engineers have always been famous, and the troops are excellent. But these Abyssinian tribes have an objection to being conquered or annexed which no invader has ever yet been able to overcome, and it is universally recognized that an attempt to subjugate them and colonize their territory will be a military operation of extraordinary difficulty. The interest in the attempt is, of course, greatly heightened by the position which Italy occupies in the Triple Alliance. If it plainly appeared that the expedition to Abyssinia tied her hands in Europe at a great crisis, the popular demand for its abandonment could hardly be resisted.

ASA GRAY.

THE great botanist whose death took place in Cambridge on Monday last, was born in Paris, Oneida County, N. Y., on November 18, 1810. He received the degree of M.D. at the College of Physicians and Surgeons for the Western District, at Fairfield, in 1831, but he never practised medicine. During, and for a short time after, his medical course, he gave instruction in chemistry and certain branches of natural history in a private school at Utica, most of his attention being devoted to botany and mineralogy.

Correspondence with Dr. John Torrey, then professor of chemistry in New York city, but more widely known as a learned botanist, led him to accept, in 1833, the position of assistant in his chemical laboratory, and, a little later, that of curator in the Lyceum of Natural History. By Dr. Torrey's side, he began a career of ceaseless botanical activity, and while he ever kept up a general interest in the advancement made in the sciences which, before that time, he had been obliged to teach, he was never for a moment diverted from his main purpose by their attractions. His first botanical writings appear to have been (1) a description of certain sedges, and (2) an account of new and interesting plants from the northern and western portions of the State of New York. This was followed in 1835 by the distribution of sets of 'North American Grasses and Sedges,' each set containing one hundred species. Of this work only two volumes were issued. In the following year he published for the use of students 'Elements of Botany,' a work which indicated clearly the range of his acquirements, his maturity of thought, and the peculiar literary excellences of his style. It gave a succinct account of all that was well established at that time in regard to the principles of morphology, histology, and vegetable physiology, as well as of the department in which he always took the greatest interest, botanical classification. But it was far more than a mere digest, such as any good scholar might prepare from the materials accessible in 1835-6. In many instances the young author had ventured to differ from accepted authorities, and he stated his dissenting views with decision and perspicuity. In after years he found that his expressions, uttered when a mere youth, needed comparatively little change, and he was fond of pointing out some of the advanced positions in botany which he had dared to take at that period. The method of the 'Elements' is essentially the same as that adopted in the well-known 'Botanical Text-Book,' published in 1842, and on the same lines have been laid down the larger volumes which form subsequent editions of that work.

About 1836 Dr. Gray began to contribute with regularity to the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, and continued his communications down to the present year. Of this periodical he became assistant editor in 1853, and associate editor in 1871. For half a century he reviewed in the *Journal* every important botanical publication which came into his hands, and put its readers in possession of nearly all the permanent additions made to botany during that time. His critical notices, always discriminating, were of a judicial character, and were felt to be so by those on trial; hence, in case of adverse judgment, those criticised did not cherish resentment. In the pages of the *Journal* appeared annually biographical notices of the botanists who had passed away within the previous year. All these sketches are filled with evidences of the kindest heart. Of these brief biographies of his contemporaries can be said what Darwin said of Asa Gray's letters: "There is always something in them that shows that he is a very lovable man."

In 1835 or 1836, Dr. Gray received the appointment of botanist to the Wilkes exploring expedition, which was supposed to be nearly ready for the South seas. Delay after delay, joined to certain unfortunate changes in the plan of the expedition, rendered the appointment undesirable, and he resigned before the expedition sailed. It would be interesting to speculate as to the result which would have followed the carrying out of his original intention. He would then, as a young man, have been brought face to face with problems which he afterwards did so much to solve when the materials were brought to him by others. While he was waiting for the expedition to sail, he gave all his time to the preparation of a part of the first volume of Torrey and Gray's 'Flora of North America.' About this date he was invited to accept the chair of botany in the University of Michigan. He accepted the appointment as one of its very earliest professors, with the proviso that he might be given a year in Europe for botanical study. This was granted him, and he carried to England a commission from the University to select the nucleus of its library—a duty which was so well discharged that the institution now looks with great pride upon the collection thus made by him. Although he never entered on the office of instruction in the University of Michigan, he always expressed the warmest interest in its welfare. Last summer, at its semi-centennial celebration, the University honored itself by conferring on him its doctorate of laws.

The year in Europe was filled to the full with scientific work in all the larger herbaria. He made at this time the personal acquaintance of the leading botanists of England and the Continent. In any extended notice of Gray's life, the remarkable results of this visit to European herbaria and botanists would necessarily be examined in detail, but it must suffice at this time to say that he returned thoroughly equipped for the task to which he had devoted his life, namely, the examination of the North American flora. He had made himself as familiar as it was possible to do with the type specimens in the older herbaria, brought from the earlier expeditions to America. Work upon the 'Flora' was resumed upon his return. The first volume was completed in 1840, the second in February, 1843.

In 1842 he accepted the newly established Fisher Professorship of Natural History in Harvard University. The late George B. Emerson, during his frequent visits to the Botanic Garden, near the close of his life, was fond of recalling his share in securing the appointment for Dr. Gray. He had himself been offered the chair, but he told the Corporation that "if they wanted the right man, they must look to a young botanist of extraordinary activity in New York; and I have always been prouder of this my choice than of anything else in my life." The position was not particularly attractive. Its occupant would be obliged to take in hand a good amount of teaching, while the appliances for this purpose were very slender. The Botanic Garden was insufficiently supplied with funds, and was a hindrance rather than a help in such work as that with which Dr. Gray was then occupied in New York. Moreover, there was absolutely no herbarium. But Dr. Gray entered on all the duties with zeal, directed the affairs of the Garden, conducted the stated instruction in the most lucid and winning manner, freely offered the hospitality of his study to such students as were anxious to learn more about botany than they could acquire in the formal course of lectures, gathered a vast herbarium, carried on an enormous correspondence with promptness, answered all social demands with unfailing courtesy, and, with all this, found time for three different classes of work. These are: (1) the elaboration of the North American flora, (2) the preparation of a series of educational treatises, (3) popular exposition of scientific questions. To these diverse occupations ought to be added one in which he found a sort of relaxation, but which must have made a serious draft upon his time: first as Secretary and afterwards as President of the American Academy, an institution in which he maintained the sincerest interest to the very last of his life. All these diverse occupations were carried on in the midst of administrative and tutorial cares until 1872, when he was relieved from the duty of teaching and the charge of the Garden. A few years before this he had been so fortunate as to attract to the Herbarium its present Curator, Dr. Sereno Watson, to whose hands can be intrusted safely the completion of the unfinished 'Flora.'

A mere enumeration of the memoirs and other contributions, most of which have been made, of course, tributary to the 'Flora,' need not now be given. The more extensive of these are accounts of the collections of plants made by Fendler, Wright, Thurber, and Lindheimer, part of the botany of various Government surveys, and a portion of the 'Botany of California.' The 'Botany of the Wilkes Expedition' was published in 1854. Five years later Dr. Gray published what he regarded as his most important minor work, 'Relations of the Japanese Flora to those of North America.' In this contribution, based upon studies of plants collected by Wright, he explains the similarity of the floras of eastern North America and Japan, by indicating that they had a common origin at the far north in tertiary times. He was accustomed to say that he believed that that paper had made him better known in the Old World than any other single piece of work. The views expressed in that communication

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were then novel; they are now accepted by all naturalists.

The great 'Synoptical Flora,' the work of his life, is more than a revised edition of the Torrey and Gray 'Flora' of forty years ago. As far as published in its proper form, it consists of the Gamopetalous Orders, making a volume of 974 pages. Parts of the rest have already been given to the press in other forms, chiefly in contributions to the Proceedings of the American Academy.

The educational series comprises a long list, which may be roughly classified as follows: First, works for teaching the principles of botany in schools and colleges, such as 'How Plants Grow' (1858), 'How Plants Behave' (1875), 'The Botanical Text-book,' always a favorite work in England; the 'Lessons' (1857), and the new 'Elements' (1887). The first 'Elements,' published in 1836, was the forerunner of the 'Text-Book'; the last, issued during the past year, is a much revised edition of the 'Lessons,' and was designed to accompany local floras. The second class of educational works contains the 'Manual of the Botany of the Northern United States' (1848), of which there have been five editions, and of the latter edition many revised issues; also the 'Field, Forest, and Garden Botany' (1868), a useful flora for schools. Of the influence of the 'Manual' it is unnecessary to speak; it has been the *vade mecum* of all American botanists since its publication. To the third class may be referred an unfinished work, entitled 'The Genera of North America' (1848), in two volumes, illustrated from drawings by Isaac Sprague, whose sketches are found throughout Dr. Gray's works. These volumes, even in their unfinished condition, have been of great use to botanical teachers.

Dr. Gray's expositions of Darwinism and allied philosophical questions are characterized by lucidity and a singular felicity in the choice of words. If his sentences are carefully examined, it will be generally found that it is difficult to replace any important single word by a better one. Many of these papers have been published in the *Nation*, a few in the *Atlantic Monthly*, others in the *American Journal of Science and Arts*, already noticed. Some of these contributions have been republished in a collected form, under the title 'Darwiniana' (1876). For an account of Dr. Gray's relations to Darwin, beginning in 1855, we must turn to the recently published 'Life and Letters of Charles Darwin.' In those pages is portrayed the deep and tender friendship between two of the greatest naturalists of any age. The appreciation felt by Darwin for Asa Gray's criticism is expressed in many of the letters addressed to Sir Joseph Hooker and to Sir Charles Lyell. Only one citation need now be given: "No one, I think, understands the whole case better than Asa Gray" (letter to Lyell in 1860). The important part played by a letter of inquiry addressed by Darwin to Asa Gray in 1857 is familiar to all readers of Darwin's 'Life,' a long and admirable review of which work was Dr. Gray's last contribution to the *Nation*, as a review of the 'Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication' was his first. Dr. Gray's relations to Darwinism itself are best given in his own words: "I am scientifically, and in my own fashion, a Darwinian, philosophically a convinced theist, and religiously an accepter of the 'creed commonly known as the Nicene,' as the exponent of the Christian faith." His reasons for this position were fully given in a short course of lectures before the Theological School of Yale (1880).

Two years ago, a surprise was planned for Dr. Gray's seventy-fifth birthday. It had been agreed that on that morning he should receive notes of congratulation from every American botanist, old and young. The notes were accompanied by a vase of silver, on which were embossed figures of the plants more particularly identified with his name or studies. It was delightful to witness his childlike pleasure as he received the gift. Among the letters were some from others than botanists. The following lines came from Mr. Lowell:

> "Just fate, prolong his life, well spent,
> Whose indefatigable hours
> Have been as gayly innocent
> And fragrant as his flowers."

Dr. Gray's last year had been one of peculiar happiness. Early in the spring he made a voyage to Europe, and, in company with Mrs. Gray, made a round of visits upon old and new friends. His activity is described as marvellous. On his return in October there were no marked indications that his useful and beautiful life was drawing to its close. He maintained his interest in recent questions, and engaged at once in the work of the 'Flora.' Even to the last month he carried with him the cheery manner and the winning smile which made him a welcome guest everywhere, and at all times. He continued to answer every demand upon his energies. His answers to the younger botanists were as patient as ever, and all looked for a few years more of his wise counsel. It was hoped that his journey, which had been crowned by the highest scientific honors and gladdened by the renewal of old friendships, might have strengthened him for a few years more of work. On his desk there remains the nearly completed revision of the 'Vitaceæ, or Grapevines, of North America.' On his writing-table there is left the unfinished necrology of the past year, which must now be closed by another hand; but no touch delineating character and scientific achievement can be as tender or as true as that of the master who has gone to his well-earned rest.

THE OPENING YEAR IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, January 14, 1888.

WILFRID S. BLUNT is an English gentleman of wealth, culture, and high character, whose devoted wife, Lady Anne Blunt, is granddaughter of Lord Byron. He first came prominently before the public a few years ago as the defender of Arabi Pasha after the bombardment of Alexandria. But for his exertions, the disgrace of the Egyptian patriot's execution would now rest upon the United Kingdom. Belonging to the class least sympathetic with Ireland, that is, the aristocratic English Catholics, he was yet impelled by his strong love of freedom and justice to consider her condition. He travelled over the country, and has latterly become a warm advocate of home rule and a bitter opponent of the Government policy. He is now, as a common malefactor in prison dress, picking oakum in Galway jail. The circumstances attending his conviction are so illustrative of the methods of the Irish administration that I may be pardoned for stating them at some length.

The baronies in Clare and Galway, surrounding Loughrea, Portumna, and Woodford, and stretching west from the shores of Lough Derg, have long been the most disturbed districts in Ireland. There have occurred the worst instances of landlord exaction. It was so nine years ago at the inception of the agitation, when, according to a classic Land League ditty, known all the world over in Irish circles, Murty Hynes "lived in ould Loughrea." It is so to-day, when, according to Mr. Shaw Lefevre, nearly every peasant met in the district had been in prison, was going to prison, or had relations in prison. The worst rack-renter has been the Marquis of Clanricarde, a heartless usurer, who has not visited his estates for some twenty years (not even coming over to the funeral of his own mother), who has refused all concessions, and who upon a late occasion dismissed an agent primarily for forwarding to him a respectful memorial from his tenants. His conduct even an Irish judge of one of the superior courts the other day declared had "aroused the indignation of the empire." Upon the side of this man all the authority of the Crown is at present ranged; against him all the spirit of the country. To silence those who went down to stand by the people, the League and its meetings have been suppressed in the district. Upon the 16th of October Mr. O'Brien and others eluded the vigilance of the police, the telegraphic wires were cut, and they held by torchlight a midnight meeting at Woodford, at which the Lord Lieutenant's proclamation was burned and very strong language used. The half-dozen policemen in the town were powerless to interfere, and were preserved from any molestation by some of the chief actors. Mr. O'Brien vigorously denounced crime ("Let there be no crime and no surrender"), and the most perfect order prevailed. Mr. Blunt spoke at this meeting. Every one present laid himself open to six months' imprisonment with hard labor; but when a few weeks passed and no prosecutions ensued, it was believed that the Government saw the impracticability of imprisoning all the inhabitants of Woodford.

But if the National League was proclaimed, others felt they were free to express their opinions. The English Home-Rule Union has been in existence for some years. It advocates home rule for Ireland; and while occasionally taking upon itself to advise the Irish people, it studiously holds aloof from countenancing the plan of campaign and other methods of the Nationalists. In autumn, several members of this Union were in Ireland, and they advertised a meeting at Woodford on Sunday, October 23, at which there were to be none but English speakers. This meeting was proclaimed by the Castle, although, as Divisional Magistrate Byrne, who suppressed it, afterwards declared in evidence, "I have no reason to doubt they would have counselled the people to patience and endurance"; adding, somewhat inconsistently, "I believe that though the speeches of those English gentlemen were to counsel the people to abstain from all crime and outrage and violence, the effect of the meeting would be to induce violence." Mr. Blunt and his English friends determined to protest, and informed the police of their intention. They ascended the platform, which had been erected before it was known that the meeting would be proclaimed. The police swept them off. Mr. Blunt resisted and was arrested. At Woodford on the 27th of October, for this offence he was sentenced by the police magistrate to two months' imprisonment. He appealed to the next Quarter Sessions, and it was widely believed the appeal would be successful, that the English Home-Rule Union had as much right to meet at Woodford as in Surrey, that all liberty of speech was at an end if the Castle of its own motion, without reference to magistrates (even police magistrates), could suppress the meeting of any association in any part of the country. The Crown refused to produce the depositions of the magistrates, if any, and the Divisional Magistrate admitted: "I want to explain that I never was left discretionary powers with regard either to preventing a meeting or dispersing a meeting." Mr. Blunt was convicted sole-

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ly and altogether because of his action at this meeting of October 23.

The appeal could not be heard for more than two months. Some six or seven weeks after the midnight meeting of October 16, and when it was supposed to have been passed over (retribution by the Government being usually prompt), the public was surprised at a number of persons being arrested for participation on that occasion. They appeared taken somewhat at haphazard. Among others, a Mr. John Roche, who was chiefly instrumental in preserving good order, was tried, convicted, and sent to jail for some weeks. "He behaved well, and made way for the police through the crowd," said one of the police witnesses. Mr. Blunt's appeal came on for hearing at Portumna last week, before County Court Judge Henn, who, it is said, for the past twenty years in his rounds has been the guest of Lord Clanricarde's representatives at one of his residences in the neighborhood. A strong bar was engaged on both sides, numerous English visitors (Shaw Lefevre, and others) were present, and the deepest interest was shown in the proceedings. How could the Government, in the face of British public opinion, sustain such a case? They proved themselves equal to the emergency.

"For ways that are dark,
And for tricks that are vain,
The heathen Chinee is peculiar."

The moment the Crown case opened, the reasons of the unexpected prosecutions for the midnight meeting were evident. They were to be used against Mr. Blunt. The depositions at Mr. Blunt's trial were not even put forward, and, after some becoming hesitation and against the indignant protestations of his counsel, the Judge admitted as evidence in the case the proceedings at the midnight meeting of the 16th and the consequent convictions. The rest was easy for the Crown. Judge Henn confirmed the sentence. The animus shown in his judgment was so extraordinary that no wonder "murmurs of astonishment were heard through the court when the Judge had concluded," or that the *Daily News* should write:

"Immediately Mr. Henn remarked that when Mr. O'Brien said, 'Commit no crime,' he meant 'Commit crime,' that putting a match to a document from Dublin Castle was 'an act of insurrection,' and that Mr. Blunt in not protesting against Mr. O'Brien's speech was guilty of having uttered it. We need not waste words over such trash, repugnant alike to law, to equity, and to common sense. Mr. Blunt has been condemned on testimony which the members of a drumhead court-martial who respected themselves, would have repudiated with scorn. The Coercion Act gives the Lord Lieutenant no more power to interfere with public meetings not being meetings of the League in districts where the League has been suppressed, than he had before. It was as legitimate and peaceful an assembly of law-abiding citizens as has ever been held in any country."

An English member of Parliament who was present told me he was much struck by an incident illustrative of the Crown tactics which was not reported. Before Mr. Blunt's appeal came on, the Crown lawyers endeavored to introduce out of rotation several cases of resistance to eviction among Lord Clanricarde's tenantry, so as to influence the mind of the Judge regarding the condition of the district. Foiled in this, they managed before Mr. Henn considered his judgment to mention the particulars of these cases in considering the arrangement of the future business before the sessions. Mr. Blunt is in Galway jail picking oakum. A public subscription is being forwarded to carry the case by means of civil action against the police who obstructed his meeting.

This and other instances constantly occurring here show the necessity a government is under—once having entered upon despotic action—of sacrificing all liberty. Effective discrimination seems nearly impossible, as it became in the United States in the effort to restrain slavery before the war. Nor is it possible for the Government to consistently administer the law all round, which would appear to be the only true policy under such circumstances. The law is strained one way against the people, in the other in favor of (or set aside as regarding) officials. There were most disgraceful instances of this tendency during Earl Spencer's Government. There is a fatality in a coercive régime that carries with it disgrace to the purest-minded administrators.

Mr. Balfour's contention before English audiences, that the police magistrates, by whom alone cases under the Coercion Act can be tried, stand indifferent between the people and the Executive, is belied by every-day facts. These magistrates are appointed to hold office at the discretion of the Castle. They constantly come up for consultation with the head officials. If they get into any legal difficulty, they are defended by an array of Crown lawyers. Last Thursday the Court of Appeal presented the spectacle of Lord Ashbourne (as Lord Chancellor) sitting in judgment on a case arising out of the prosecution of a news-vender under the Coercion Act, he being one of the chief advisers and pillars of the present Government in Ireland. Beside him sat Mr. Justice Fitzgibbon, with whom Mr. Balfour spent his Christmas holidays.

Two recent cases strikingly illustrate all this. Informations at the suit of some little girls for criminal assault were, about ten days ago, sworn before the Mayor of Cork against a high official, an ex-military officer; but the police have as yet declined to act upon them. Again, after an execution last Tuesday the coroner's jury exercised their statutable right of demanding the presence of the executioner. He had been spirited away by the detectives, and no effort has been made to execute the Coroner's warrant for his appearance. The Coroner declined to give an order for the burial of the remains until the executioner was produced; the Crown evaded the difficulty by procuring a special permit for interment from the Lord Lieutenant. The true policy of the Government would appear to take every opportunity of conciliation within the law, but the contrary policy (one of unnecessary exasperation) seems to be deliberately adopted by Mr. Balfour. The Lord Mayor of Dublin was ordered by his judge to be imprisoned as a "first-class misdemeanant." He is at once hurried privately, one cold winter's morning, from Dublin to Tullamore, so as to be out of the reach of the visits of his family and friends. Mr. Sheehy, M.P., has been confined as a common malefactor. While yet some weeks of his sentence are unexpired, he is brought up on another charge under the Crimes Act, before another judge, who, shocked at his appearance and what he had gone through, in sentencing him to a further term, directed he should be treated as a "first-class misdemeanant," involving the right to see his friends, supply his own clothes and diet. The Government persist in considering him in the overlapping time as a malefactor, the only change hitherto in his treatment being the substitution of a chair for a three-legged stool in his cell.

Extraordinary convictions are taking place—shopkeepers for refusing to supply goods, even in cases where it was proved that the parties denied were not ordinary customers; smiths for refusing to shoe horses under similar circumstances; news-venders for selling newspapers. Mr. Corcoran, foreman printer of the Cork *Examiner*, has been sentenced to two months' imprisonment (a month each for two publications, so as to prevent the right of appeal which one conviction for two months would involve), because the Cork *Examiner* published reports of proceedings of suppressed branches of the League; and this although Mr. Crosbie, son of the editor, who is himself abroad in poor health, assumed the full onus, and declared that Mr. Corcoran was in no way responsible for the contents of the paper. Then we have the case of Mr. T. Harrington. He is Secretary of the National League and one of Mr. Balfour's most formidable opponents. He has been sentenced to six weeks' imprisonment, on the technical plea that he is registered as joint owner with his brother Edward, also an M.P., who has just undergone several weeks' imprisonment for publishing in his paper, the *Kerry Sentinel*, reports of suppressed branches of the League; and this notwithstanding proof that Mr. T. Harrington has had nothing to do with the paper for years, that his partnership in it was long ago dissolved, and that his conviction rests solely upon the mistake of a clerk in filling up the registration certificate required from newspaper proprietors by the Post-office.

With all these doings the ascendency class are more than ever gratified and satisfied. "Stick to it, stick to it, stick to it, my lad," 's the Christmas card of the Dublin *Union* newspaper to Mr. Balfour, and at several meetings of the Landlord party the warmest approval is expressed of his action. The *Reflector*, a new "Unionist" organ, commences a leader to-day with: "The Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland is probably, with one exception, the most popular English politician now living." Yet signs are not wanting that numbers of the middle and upper classes, whose interests are not directly bound up with land, are awaking to the gravity of the situation and the necessity of terminating this ruinous and demoralizing policy of brute force as against public opinion. The approaching visit of Lord Ripon and Mr. Morley will afford an opportunity for the expression of these convictions. I am myself surprised at the number of men of character and position who, hitherto holding themselves entirely aloof from politics, and consequently having hitherto been counted among "Unionists," entering their names on the "Reception Committee," as I am surprised also at the number of those who, holding the strongest views in opposition to the Administration, still feel justified, from selfish motives, in withholding all public expression of their opinions. Some of the present transition, especially among lawyers, is doubtless due to ulterior personal considerations, but it is not less striking on that account.

If anything were wanting to justify in the main the Parnell movement, it would be the long list of reductions of rents confirmed on appeal which have lately been given to the public, generally averaging about 33 per cent. Such reductions may tend to mollify the tenantry, but they are not very likely to detach them from the leaders through whose exertions and sufferings alone such substantial concessions have been obtained.

But for the length to which this letter has already run, I should like to refer in detail to the late charge of Judge Waters to the Grand Jury of Waterford, in which he comments upon the general absence of crime in the county as well before as since the passage of the Crimes Bill, the favorable comparison of Irish with English criminal statistics, and the average inclination of Irish juries upon proper evidence to agree to verdicts. D. B.

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Correspondence.

THE SALOON IN KANSAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your paper of January 12 you refer to Kansas in your article on "Successful Anti-Liquor Laws" as no more successful than Iowa and Vermont "in keeping saloons closed." If by saloons you mean the usual open saloon where liquor is sold, you are mistaken as to Kansas in general. There may be on the frontier, in new and lawless neighborhoods, and in one or two of the largest places in the State—like Wichita or Leavenworth, places of 30,000 and 25,000 respectively—and possibly in Kansas City, Kansas, open saloons; but not elsewhere in the State, or my information and observation are at fault. Indeed, I think the success here in closing the saloons is wonderful, and it is owing, it seems to me, to several causes—not the least of which, probably, is the fact that there is no city of more than 30,000 population, and only three of more than 15,000. Then the foreign-born population is small, and the people are agricultural, and the mining population is small, only a few hundred in any locality.

This does not mean that liquor is not to be had by those seeking it; the fact is, that one can probably purchase it in nearly every place in the State of any size, and it is constantly shipped into the State by the dealers in Kansas City and St. Joseph, and many drug stores supply it. But the use of it has greatly fallen off, and public sentiment has grown more and more favorable to prohibition, or at least to having saloons closed.

I am not a prohibitionist in the ordinary sense, though a temperance man, and I was not in favor of the experiment in Kansas; nor would I favor the same experiment in any State upon the basis of merely a majority of the votes in favor of it. But I think the prohibitionist may properly claim the movement in Kansas as thus far a great success. This fact, as I think it is, does not militate against the soundness of your reasoning in your article referred to. With a few cities of 50,000 or more in our midst, the situation in Kansas would be, probably, very decidedly changed.

Edward Russell.

Lawrence, Kas., January 20, 1888.

THE OTHER SIDE OF HIGH LICENSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article on high license in No. 1176, by giving only one side of the matter, gives too favorable a view. There is another side of a very different sort, and it is one that gives very serious concern to many even of those who think that the general results of high license, in great cities and some States, are better than prohibition has thus far secured on the same ground. The principal sources of evil are two:

(1.) There are some villages, and even large towns and counties, in which prohibition is perfectly feasible, and has been successfully worked in the past, but in which the greed for large license fees, with the resulting reduction of taxation, has broken down the majority for exclusion and caused the licensing of a saloon or two or more. But saloons are peculiarly mischievous when first opened in a place in which the young have not grown up face to face with their evils; during the time that is necessary to educate and array public sentiment against them, they do a deadly work.

(2.) In many places the sudden discovery of the possibilities of revenue from high license has produced a craze for the reduction of taxation in this way. Hence has arisen the desire to license as many saloons as possible, that the annual question, "What is the tax rate this year?" may be answered in a gratifying manner. But there is a limit to the profits even of the liquor business, especially when the first act of the year is the payment of $500 or $1,000 into the city treasury, and the second is the payment of a heavy Government tax. There has been under high license very generally a falling off in the number of applications for license in the second and even in the third year, the old set being slow to give up. But fewer licenses means more taxation or a stopping of the public improvements that the flood of license-money permitted. Out of this state of things naturally grows a disposition to give the saloon-keeper more range, more sources and opportunities of trade, than the law allows; that is, to wink at the sale of liquor to minors and habitual drunkards, to try not to see the people sneaking in at the back door at midnight or on Sunday, to tolerate gambling in or in connection with saloons, and even to refuse point-blank to take away the licenses of those who have been convicted in the courts of violating the restrictions of the license. In some towns, and in all towns by some people, it is freely said that "the fine is punishment enough," and that "we must not be too strict with them or they will throw up their license." The goose lays a golden egg, and must under no provocation be killed.

How great the demoralization is that is thus produced, only those can realize who have tried, while participating in government, to persuade their fellow-officials to be strict. Perhaps the evil will grow less with time; that is what we are waiting to find out. Until things begin to better and have bettered very much, we cannot share very heartily the satisfaction that you feel. The thing that grows upon us is the conviction that the saloon is an intolerable pest.

H. M. Whitney.

Beloit, Wis., January 24, 1888.

THE TOBACCO TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am glad to see journals like the *Nation* advocating a repeal of the revenue taxes on tobacco. The question must now be respected by all fair-minded men, and the Congressman who shall become the champion of a measure for the repeal of these taxes will earn the lasting gratitude of the people of this country from one end to the other. The amount of money actually collected by the Government as taxes on tobacco, though objectionable, is less ruinous than the iron-clad regulations necessarily thrown around the tobacco business. The complications of the law are so mazy; the bonds required are so heavy, and the penalties for violation of the law so severe—ranging in fines of from $100 to $20,000, and always accompanied with imprisonment for from six months to five years—that both the production and manufacture have been driven into comparatively few hands. The few manufacturers, especially, who have thus been placed in the position of monopolists have almost all grown immensely rich, and will now fight to have the law retained, not for the pleasure of paying the taxes, but for the advantage of the monopoly which it guarantees them. There are thus no licensed dealers in the small towns, and the farmer must raise sufficient to make up the regulation case or hogshead, so as not to be classed as a retail dealer, and ship a long distance to the city. Here only the large producers stand any show at all, the small shipments being little better than confiscated.

Thus, as above stated, all but comparatively few producers have been driven from the field, and the area of production is greatly restricted geographically. In the meantime, consumption has not materially decreased, and the erstwhile producer is still a consumer; and not only he, but all those whom his surplus crop would naturally have supplied, must buy from the aforesaid monopolists.

The law has fallen with peculiar hardship upon a very numerous class of small farmers, who are the most helpless of any class of men in the world under such circumstances. Not only do they submit, but their voices seem never or but feebly to be heard. A farm which will not support a family by raising grain once maintained them in comfort and gave honest employment to all its members by raising tobacco. Their old barns may be seen abandoned and rotting down in some parts of the country to-day. Land which would be valuable is worthless. Homes which might be united and happy are early scattered in poverty and ignorance. Thus have I myself seen prosperity depart from a community, and I have only sacrificed details to brevity in this letter.

Perhaps tobacco is a luxury. Anything better than corn-bread and bacon would be considered as such by many of these farmers. But what a delightful luxury must be the piling up of millions of dollars through the advantages of a close monopoly, even though we know that those who have a natural right to share in those millions are shivering and hungry in another part of the country.

W. M. H.

St. Louis, January 18, 1888.

COEDUCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Everybody knows that extraordinary conclusions can be deduced from statistics if one sets about it with that intent, but your correspondent on the subject of coeducation has certainly surpassed all former records in that line. Let us examine his argument. He concludes:

(1.) *That women prefer colleges open only to women.* The New England colleges open to both sexes, from which this conclusion is drawn, are Bates, Boston, Colby, and Wesleyan. They are all either very small, or very denominational, or both. That they have fewer women students than the colleges open to women only may be accounted for by the fact that women prefer the best and most richly endowed of the colleges that are accessible to them. It is impossible to find out what Eastern women think about coeducation until the great Eastern colleges are open to them on the same terms as to men.

(2.) *That the necessity does not exist of admitting female students to colleges heretofore reserved for men.* What *necessity* ever existed for admitting women to any colleges? It was not pretended that they would commit harakiri if they continued to be denied the higher education, but it was maintained that it would be wholly to the advantage both of the whole race and of their half of it if they were to be made free of the best education attainable. So long as Harvard and the Johns Hopkins University offer better facilities for getting at the heights and depths of learning than the smaller colleges do, women cannot give themselves up to the contented enjoyment of what they have

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got, although they like what they have got very much better than nothing at all.

(3.) *That in the eastern section of the country collegiate coeducation will not be extended.* It is impossible to see what ground your correspondent's figures give for this conclusion. The data are not sufficient to enable one to lay down the curve of rapidity of extension, and to show that it has already reached its asymptotic form; they have, in fact, no bearing whatever upon the question.

(4.) *That colleges limited to one sex enjoy a remarkable degree of prosperity.* This conclusion is the most interesting of all, and I have therefore reserved it for the last. Its ground is, that the five large New England colleges have not yet admitted women, and that they have not on that account *been reduced to small colleges.* The aggregate number of students at Yale, Amherst, Harvard, Williams, and Dartmouth for 1874 and 1884 were 2,418 and 2,948 respectively—that is, they showed an increase of 22 per cent. At the four small colleges named above which admit women, the increase was from 343 to 621, or 81 per cent.—that is, nearly four times as much. These figures would show, if they showed anything, that to admit women is to cause a *nearly four-fold more rapid increase in the number of students of a college than would otherwise take place*—a very satisfactory result for the friends of coeducation. That the women's colleges have been prosperous does not show, as we have pointed out before, that separateness is a cause of prosperity, for there are no mixed colleges of the same rank and character with which to compare them. In spite of that fact, however, the rate of increase of women at mixed colleges has been 221 per cent., and at separate colleges only 296 per cent.

The colleges of the West, your correspondent states, are overwhelmingly coeducational, and he says that it is hard to draw conclusions from them. It is true that it would be a little harder to draw from them the *same* conclusions which he draws from the statistics of Eastern colleges, but *some* conclusions it would not be difficult to draw, and, in fact, President Angell of Michigan University draws some highly interesting ones on the very next page of the *Nation* to that on which your correspondent's letter occurs.

We proceed to show that these same tables of statistics, if skilfully handled, may be made to yield another conclusion, more interesting and quite as sound as those to which your correspondent has been led. Counting Vassar as a New England college (this is necessary, because otherwise no comparison is possible, and it is admissible on account of the large number of non-New England men who go to the great New England colleges), the rate of increase in the women's colleges per decade has been 296 per cent., and in the men's colleges, taking the five great ones as a standard, it has been 22 per cent. If this state of things continues ("And how," said a workingman to me the other day, "do you judge of the future, if not by the past?"), then in another decade the large colleges will contain more women than men, and in another twenty years there will be, roughly speaking, four times as many New England women as men who are receiving a college education. This conclusion, reckless as it is, need not appear so very startling, for there are already, in the whole country, four times as many girls as boys who finish the high-school course.

CHRISTINE LADD FRANKLIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Being "interested in the progress of coeducation"—at least in all advanced post-graduate lines of work and study—I have followed the advice given by Mr. William A. Merrill of College Hill, Ohio, in his letter to the *Nation*, in its issue of January 19, and have examined the tables referred to "from the reports of the Commissioner of Education for 1874 and 1884-'85," and also the last published report of the Education Bureau, that of 1885-'86.

Without intending to accuse Mr. Merrill of special pleading, it seems to me that some of his "conclusions," as summarized in the letter, are hardly supported by the more detailed tables from which he made up his abridged ones, or by the statistics of "secondary education," to which educational strata, by the by, many of the institutions entered under the head of "Universities and Colleges" really belong. Personally, my prejudices are opposed to coeducation except in kindergartens and universities; but the people of the United States seem inclined to steadily extend its field in spite of such prejudices.

In an article on "Secondary Instruction" (page 359, Report of Commissioner of Education, 1885-'86), the Commissioner says:

"In eighteen States and three Territories reported in 1884-'85, coeducation was a feature of three-quarters or more of the schools under consideration; in nine States and four Territories it was a feature of one-half the schools, or less than one-half; and in eleven States the coeducation schools numbered between one-half and three-quarters of the whole. It is therefore evident that there is no settled prejudice against coeducation among those classes in the United States who are able and willing to prolong the education of their children beyond the elementary stage."

In 1876, of the 356 institutions classed as "Universities and Colleges," 140 report women students; in 1885-'86, of the 346 reporting under this head, 190 admitted women. Of the 26 new institutions of this character established in the 10 years between 1876 and 1886, 19 were coeducational. In 1876, about 6,000 women were "reported" as attending coeducational "colleges and universities"; in 1886 this number had increased to nearly 8,000, and is really considerably greater, as a number of institutions which had reported their male and female students separately in 1876, in 1886 merely reported the total number.

The tables and reports are all imperfect, one college leaving this question unanswered, another that; but the general trend of their evidence leads me to somewhat different conclusions from those suggested by your correspondent.

(I.) That *all* colleges, either limited to one sex or coeducational, where well-equipped and well-officered, "show a remarkable degree of prosperity," and that this increase is not *proportionately* greater in "colleges limited to one sex," for "a consideration of the several classes under which colleges and universities of the United States may be presented will, it is hoped, suffice to show that superior instruction in this country is rapidly assuming definite character as regards both its instruments and its purposes. As the process goes on, pretentious institutions are naturally overborne and finally disappear, while those that 'have a name to endure' strike their roots deeper and deeper into the community" (see Report, 1885-'86, p. 461).

(II.) That women, like men, prefer those colleges which supply with least expense their special needs most agreeably. To thousands of women this is done acceptably by coeducational institutions. Others prefer colleges exclusively for women, and these latter seem to be patronized by two classes of students: (1.) the daughters of parents who prefer to send, during undergraduate years of study, young and inexperienced girls to colleges *under the direction of women;* (2) students who, being financially able to choose, pass by second-rate coeducational institutions for first-class women's colleges. The most thriving women's colleges are at the East, where coeducational ones equally good are rare.

In this connection, mention may be made of a recent statistical statement in a report to the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ, in regard to the occupations of women college graduates. Of the twelve colleges from which those so classified had graduated, nine were coeducational, and of these nine seven had admitted women since 1870.

(III.) That, throughout the country, the coeducational colleges under denominational control, such as Oberlin, Hillsdale, Milton, Leland University, etc., have steadily thriven, showing no change of opinion among a large body of conservative people in regard to coeducation.

(IV.) "That the necessity" *does* "exist of admitting female students to the higher institutions of learning heretofore reserved for men," because only in these universities can post-graduate, professional, or "special" female students secure the advantages they crave and are preparing for. Furthermore, that the growth of liberal opinion favors the extension of the advantages of our great universities to women, and that "in the eastern section of the country collegiate coeducation *will* be extended."

Mr. Merrill mentions Harvard Annex as though it were a protest against coeducation; it certainly cannot be so regarded—although it may be a foreshadowing of one of the forms which coeducation is to take. The Harvard Annex is not a college for women in the sense in which Wellesley and Bryn Mawr are women's colleges. "The original object was not to build up a college for women, . . . but . . . simply to repeat for women the collegiate instruction that was already provided for men by Harvard College. Its instruction is given exclusively by professors and other instructors of Harvard." (Report for 1887.) The steady increase in the number of its students (this year ninety) is the best reply to those who assert that it is "unnecessary" to offer women the advantages of our older universities. The very increase in the number of women collegiate students, and of "institutions for the higher instruction of women," is a reason for opening to women the best equipped and endowed universities, so that they may as women continue most advantageously the studies begun as girls in high schools and colleges, coeducational or otherwise, or under private tuition.

Within the past year, several cases have come to the writer's knowledge where young women of ability and professional position have been refused admission to special courses at Johns Hopkins, only because they were women. "We are very sorry, but the trustees have so voted." One of these applicants was a teacher who wished to increase her usefulness by attending Prof. Hall's lectures on Psychology, specially designed for teachers; another was a young physician, anxious to carry on her pathological studies under Prof. Welch. Such applications are only heard of accidentally, but there is a steadily increasing sympathy with them when known.

When Columbia College grudgingly offered fairly generous opportunities for study and a conservative "certificate" for women, the entering wedge was driven which assures for women finally university training. The change may come slowly, but figures (Columbia has

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thirteen women students this year, and a much larger number in the School of Library Economy), reason, generosity, justice, all urge that women shall be permitted to train their minds under the same august supervision which polishes and moulds those of their fathers, husbands, brothers, and sons.

Public opinion in educational matters is *shown most surely in private and individual* action. Therefore it may fairly be assumed that as long as the number of students in the average coeducational high school and college steadily increases, so the pressure will increase against the doors of our highest institutions of learning, until they too are opened, under limitations if you please, to the female graduates of any school or college, coeducational or otherwise, which properly prepares them to enter the more learned precincts of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, Johns Hopkins, etc.

C. B.

Baltimore, January 29, 1888.

CRIMINAL POSING AMONG THE GERMANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your note in the last number of the *Nation* upon the career and trial of the thieving postman, Zalewski, which was related in the November number of *Nord und Süd*, you refer to the reason Mr. Gross assigns for the offence, *i. e.*, an ambition "to be the hero of what we call a 'dime novel.'" This assumption by Germans of a trite explanation of the most notorious and hideous criminal offences among their people is one singularly weak and unreasoning, it has struck me, and, moreover, reflective of an inherent, silly vanity and moral obtuseness which other nations, I feel sure, would hesitate to ascribe to them. And the desire "to be a hero," a hero in crime, seems to be the constantly recurring reason assigned by individuals of every class for most heinous offences.

A maid subserving in the household of the Prince of Lippe-Detmold threw herself into a mill-pond. I asked her friend Louisa, who waited upon me, the cause: "*Ach!* she would like to have people talk about her." A young man who regularly walked the opposite pavement, and smoked his after-breakfast pipe, disappeared. After a day or two, we heard he had made away with himself in Hanover, and willed his body to the dissectors. "He wanted people to talk him over," said the grandmother of one household; "and he had debts, too." In turning over an album I met the pictures of two fine-looking boys of about twelve and fourteen years of age. Their young lady cousin, a schoolmistress, explained that they were dead, having planned together an awful taking-off. After watching for weeks for an opportunity to accomplish their plan, they were left alone one summer night in a country-house. The older made away with the younger, and then with himself. When I asked the reason, there came the unfailing reply: "They would be heroes and have the world talk of them." A kinsman of a Westphalian went to Paris, hired a box at the opera, and in the midst of the gayest scene shot himself through the head. "But why?" I questioned. "*Ach!* he would be talked about," was the reply. In the autumn of 1882 a postman in Berlin murdered a man, and concealed his tracks with utmost cunning. "What was the cause of the act?" I asked a Berlin professor. "He wanted to be a hero," the professor answered; "he was thinking of the fellow (Kerl) down in Vienna who did the same thing last year for the same reason." I remember that certain Berlin papers assigned a like cause for the act.

Can this morbid desire of posing, ascribed by the Germans themselves in the instances above cited—this wish of being in the mouths of people—be at the root of many crimes in Germany? With the Germans, we sometimes attribute the tendency to suicide in their country to a selfish over-sentimentalism, a mania of egoism. Shall we also follow them in lightly reasoning that many other unexplained crimes against life and property in their country are to be referred to the same cause?—Respectfully,

K. S.

Cambridge, Mass., January 23, 1888.

"GALEOTTO."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a very clear analysis and a very trenchant criticism which "B. P." gives of Echegaray's 'Galeotto.' Incontestably, whatever may be its other literary and dramatic merits, its epilogue is miserably lame and impotent—what is more, is as far from realism as idealism ever dare be. Why, then, are not common sense and artistic sense at once revolted? What is there in this passionate cry of the South to catch the cold, critical ear of the North? On what strong wings is the poet's fame uplifted in its flight "past the Pyrenean pines"?

Surely, the strength of the play must not be sought in the nerveless commonplace that it is very wicked to gossip; nor can it be found in the questionable doctrine that you can make white dark by calling it black. The one is true, but not new; the other new, but not true. But has not the poet after all "builded better than he knew"? Is not the intense human interest of the play, which alone can make it "strong" or popular with the cultured, in fact rooted in our irresistible sympathy with two lovers? Was not Galeotto, was not the "book," really right? Assuredly, in the old tales, the luckless pairs were all along the intensest lovers. Perfectly innocent, perfectly unconscious, they might have been, until the touch of a hand, the glance of an eye, closed the electric circuit, and their quivering natures leaped together in flame. The poet, strive as he may, cannot wrest man away from nature. Gossip, after all, was right. At least, the human heart supplies the defects of the poet's imagination, and rejoices all the more in the love of *Ernst* and *Julie* because the weight of nobility in their souls suppressed it into unconsciousness.

The ultimate motive of this tragedy is, then, it would seem, not different from that of the early Greek drama: it is the strife of man with destiny; or, rather, it is the battle in and around man of the powers above. Here it is the god of love quelled by the god of hospitality. Gossip is at best but an armor-bearer in the fray.

William Benjamin Smith.

University of Missouri, January 22, 1888.

THE TRAINING OF THE HUMAN MIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Let us settle our facts first and draw our conclusions afterwards. My facts are, first, that Charles Darwin received a strict, rigid, or, if you please, narrow classical education extending through school and college; second, that his working mind evinced the keenest observation, the deepest reasoning, the most patient research, the most careful deduction. Who is the correspondent that will controvert either the one or the other of these facts? If any would, I respectfully tell him that the only effective way for him to overthrow my facts will be for him to produce a naturalist, philosopher, or scientist who, having been trained in early life by means of a scientific or optional system of education, developed in after life a better working mind than Mr. Darwin's. Who is that naturalist, philosopher, or scientist, and where was he educated?

Your correspondent "X." (*Nation*, January 26, 1888, p. 73) says, in substance, that nothing could have been worse for *his*, Mr. Darwin's, mind than this narrow classical education. I respectfully deny the asserted fact. We are now dealing with the reasoning and observing faculties of the human mind; and, in the endeavor to get at the *facts*, I call upon "X." to produce instances where the observing faculty of Darwin brought him false information, or where his reasoning power dwindled away in shallow inferences. In the law it is necessary to establish the *corpus delicti* first—to show that somebody was killed before you can try somebody else for killing him. For the same logical reason, I want it first established wherein the working mind of Darwin was defective—instances where his observation was not wide enough or close enough—instances where his reasoning was illogical or inconclusive—instances where another mind, educated in another way, has, under like conditions and dealing with like material, done better. When we have such facts before us, we can intelligently inquire as to their causes.

In the meantime, I shall reiterate that the evidence now before us indicates that a strict, rigid, or even narrow classical education furnishes the best possible training for the working mind of the future naturalist.—Respectfully, etc., etc.,

C. C. N.

Washington, January 27, 1888.

Notes.

'Uncle Sam at Home,' by an English resident in the United States, whose humorous views of our social, political, and financial being will be seasoned with pictorial illustrations, is shortly to be published by Henry Holt & Co.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, will make a volume of the Mendelssohn-Moscheles correspondence exemplified in the February *Scribner's*. They announce also 'The Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; and 'Harvard Reminiscences,' by the Rev. A. P. Peabody, with a portrait of the author.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have in press 'Society in Rome under the Cæsars,' by William Ralph Inge, M.A.

'American Fishes,' a popular treatise on the Game and Food Fishes of America, with special reference to habits and modes of capture, by Prof. C. Brown Goode, U. S. Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, will be brought out in March as a subscription work by the Standard Book Co. of this city.

The next publication of the Dunlap Society—the second of the Society's second year—is a 'Life of Thomas A. Cooper,' by Mr. Joseph N. Ireland, now printing at the De Vinne Press. It will have for a frontispiece a reproduction of a rare portrait of the actor who stood at the head of the American stage for many years.

To the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" series (Putnams) have been added Lord Chesterfield's 'Letters, Sentences, and Maxims,' with Sainte-Beuve's critical essay on this writer prefixed in an English form; and 'The Adventures of Baron Munchausen,' compiled from the original English edition (taken over bodily), the near-

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est German edition, and from the English sequel, and with a few illustrations interspersed.

Dr. Smiles's 'Life and Labor' (Harpers), like others of his well-known works, is a perfect repertory of anecdotes of noted men and women of all times. These are grouped under various headings, as "Great Young Men," "Great Old Men," "Evening of Life," with a running commentary which is usually apt and well put. There are also suggestive chapters on "Health-Hobbies" and "Over Brain-work," which it would be well for all men to read who are attempting "to get thirty shillings out of their pound." For desultory readers, and for speakers or writers who desire a telling illustration, this book will prove especially valuable, while to the young many of the facts related must act as a healthy stimulus. There is, we are glad to say, an excellent index.

Neither of the two American editions of Darwin's 'Voyage of the *Beagle*' is so attractively dressed as that just issued in London and New York by T. Nelson & Sons. There must be a renewed interest in this immortal work growing out of the Life of Darwin, which is now the delight of thousands of readers. The 'Journal of Researches' would stand in the forefront of works of travel even if the author had died on completing it; but, *pace* the Duke of Argyll, who recommends it because "we have Darwin here before he was a Darwinian," one can now see plainly in it what the readers of 1842 could not, the germs of the doctrine of Evolution which so many years of the most patient and candid reflection and observation were ultimately to fructify. A frontispiece view of an atoll, and a bit of Tahitian scenery as a title vignette, are the only illustrations of the present edition. Some day we may hope for a worthy treatment of the work in this respect, with the aid of the camera. Meanwhile, with Mr. Darwin's cordial approval, a compilation primarily for the use of children, but quite as enjoyable by adults, was made under the title 'What Mr. Darwin Saw in his Voyage round the World in the Ship *Beagle*,' and handsomely published a few years ago, with a large number of pertinent illustrations, by the Messrs. Harper.

We owe to the anti-saloon movement the 'White Ribbon Birthday Book,' edited by Anna Gordon, illustrated in color and otherwise by Mary A. Lathbury, and published at Chicago by the Women's Temperance Publication Association. The select passages in prose and verse are all from the writings of women, many eminent, yet not in a sufficient proportion to make the literary level a high one.

Prof. R. B. Anderson's popular 'Norse Mythology' has just appeared in a Danish version made by Dr. Fr. Winkel Horn from the fourth edition ('Nordisk Mythologi,' Christiania: Alb. Cammermeyer). Those who know Horn's rank as a translator of the Elder Edda, and an authority in what pertains to Northern antiquities, can appreciate the compliment thus paid to author and book. But there is an even greater distinction in the fact that, as we believe, no foreign work on the same subject has ever been translated into any Scandinavian tongue. Dr. Horn furnishes a biographical sketch of our minister at Copenhagen, and a capital likeness of him is prefixed to the handsome volume—a genuine "product of American industry" even if manufactured abroad and in a foreign tongue; and yet (we will put the barbarous fact on record), though bearing an inscription from the author to a countryman at home, it was admitted into the United States only on payment of a customs duty!

The two freshly bound volumes of *Harper's Magazine*, numbered 74 and 75, show that the editor is to be classed among those "whose hearts have a look southward." Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis's "Here and There in the South," Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's "South Revisited" and "New Orleans," Mr. Gayarré's "Sugar Plantation of the Old Régime in Louisiana," Mr. Brown's "Kentucky Pioneers," Edmund Kirke's "Southern Gateway of the Alleghanies," and Mr. Coleman's "Recent Movement in Southern Literature," form the noticeably strong array of papers touching the southern half of this Union, still a land unknown and full of surprises for most of us. But also there are papers on Mexico, Costa Rica, and (especially valuable) on Chili and the Argentine Republic. Russia, on the other hand, is pretty well looked after in Lansdell's "Natives of Siberia," Meeker's "Through the Caucasus," Millet's "Campaigning with the Cossacks," and Heard's "Russia of To-day." Howells's "April Hopes" and Blackmore's "Springhaven" have led the serial fiction. A great many portraits adorn such collective articles as Coquelin's "Acting and Actors," Theo. Child's "Comédie-Française," "The New York Police Department," and "The Irish Party," but there is no *chef d'œuvre* in this line of engraving.

In *Harper's Weekly* for 1887 the South has the attention paid it of a regular Supplement, besides what it gets from the President's tour in the same quarter. Here there is no lack of portraits, that of Tolstoi and the engraving after St. Gaudens's Lincoln ranking easily first in interest. The pictorial epitome of the year embraces the anniversaries of Wilhelm I., Victoria, the Pope, Whittier, of the Constitutional Convention; the *Thistle-Volunteer* races, the trial of Jacob Sharp, the hanging of the Chicago Anarchists, the Grévy-Carnot succession. An illustrated University series distinguishes this thirty-first volume of the *Weekly*.

From the same publishers we have the twentieth volume of *Harper's Bazar*, and *Harper's Young People* for 1887, which it would be superfluous to characterize.

We are sorry to learn from the Providence *Book Notes* of the suspension of the *Rhode Island Historical Magazine*, published at Newport, and of the *Narragansett Historical Register*.

Two posthumous works of the late Charles Wesley Tuttle, 'Capt. Francis Champernowne' and 'The Dutch in Acadia,' are to be edited and published by Mr. Albert H. Hoyt. Mr. Tuttle died in the practice of the law after an astronomical career not a little remarkable, especially in its origin, as is related in the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, which also gives a portrait of him. In the same number are to be found Mr. Abner C. Goodell, jr.'s, remarks a year ago on Mr. Henry F. Waters's English researches, the speaker contrasting by the way Mr. Waters's method with the late Col. Chester's, which is set forth on p. 83 from the original prospectus. The "Gleanings" contributed by the former to the present number relate, among others, to William Mullins, a *Mayflower* passenger, and the father of that Priscilla whom Miles Standish courted and John Alden won; his will being given. The Sedgwick family of Charlestown is also illustrated by many documents, and Joyliffes, Greys, and Greenes come in for a share of attention. Of general interest is Mr. Benjamin Rand's extended account of the Rev. Aaron Cleveland, great-great-grandfather of the President, whose pedigree is as fully traced as may be. The clergyman in question was a graduate of Harvard in 1735. For a time he ministered in Halifax, and died at the house of Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia on August 18, 1757. He was, said Franklin, "above every species of meanness and dissimulation." Mr. Richard H. Greene caps Judge Richardson's list of Harvard alumni who have held official position with a corresponding list for Yale. Ninety-two presidents of colleges are enumerated.

Mr. William Archer's papers on the "Anatomy of Acting," now appearing in *Longman's Magazine*, will be revised and enlarged into a little treatise on the histrionic art. Among the distinguished performers on this side of the Atlantic who have answered his circular of inquiry at length are Mr. Dion Boucicault and Mr. John Drew.

Dr. John Murray of the *Challenger* contributes to the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January an instructive paper "On the Height of the Land and Depth of the Ocean." After a careful comparison of the most recent surveys, he concludes that the mean height of the land is 2,250 feet, or more than twice the height given by Humboldt in the beginning of the century. The latter's error probably consisted mainly in underestimating the height and extent of the great Central-Asian plateau, of which nearly a million square miles are at an elevation of over 12,000 feet, 7,800 miles being above 24,000 feet. The mean depth of the sea, on the other hand, is 12,480 feet, the deepest seas as well as the highest land being in the northern hemisphere. It is a curious fact that while 90 per cent. of the land is lower than 6,000 feet, only 17 per cent. of the sea-bed is shallower than this, so that if the surface of the whole solid land should "be reduced to one level under the ocean, then the surface of the earth would be covered by an ocean with a uniform depth of about two miles." An excellent map accompanies the paper, which is followed by a discussion of the vexed question as to the course of the African river, Welle, the writer advocating the theory that it is the upper waters of the Itimbiri, a branch of the Congo.

The principal paper in the January Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is by Mr. D. D. Daly, who gives an account of his recent explorations in British North Borneo. The most interesting part relates to the collection of edible bird's nests. He visited some limestone caves in the eastern part of the island a considerable distance from the coast, in which they were to be found in incredible quantities. One of these caves was 900 feet high, and was inhabited by such myriad swarms of swifts that "a steady column of these birds has been timed by watch to fly for three-quarters of an hour from one of the apertures." Little control is exercised over the collection of the nests, they being taken in some places six times in the year, while in Annam only three harvests are allowed. A favorable report of the prospects of the colony was given, the imports having increased within six years five-fold, and the exports nearly as much. Head-hunting is nearly exterminated. The Rev. A. Hetherwick gives a description of a journey last year in the region to the southeast of Lake Nyassa. Both papers are accompanied by maps.

At the last meeting of the French Geographical Society, M. Aristide Dumont advocated the construction of a railway from the mouth of the Orontes to the Persian Gulf. He estimates the cost of construction, which would present no peculiar difficulties, at $50,000,000, affirming that if "only a quarter of the passengers who now go by the canal should take the rail, the expense would be justified," without taking into account the local traffic. Not only would ten days' time be gained between Brindisi and

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Bombay, but the building of the railway would naturally lead to extensive works for draining and irrigating the great plains of Mesopotamia, thereby restoring them to their former fertility and vastly increasing their population.

The condition of French Indo-China was the subject of an address before the Société de Géographie commerciale on December 21, 1887, by M. de Lanessan, deputy of the Seine, who has just returned from a Government mission to that country. He spoke very plainly, saying that, with the commercial system now in force there, "we shall never be able to draw any advantage from the countries of the protectorate." Again, referring to the severe restrictions upon all except French imports, and the multitude of custom-houses and officials, he says: "We are ruining Cochin-China. We have built there palaces and churches, but we have made neither roads nor canals, and are merely fattening a crowd of absolutely useless officials." While thinking that the French are deceived as to the value of Tonkin, he believes that in four years, with a wise, prudent, and economical government, it can be made self-supporting.

M. Paul Bert's brief administration of Tonkin was especially characterized by his great interest in providing means for the education of the people. From a report of the Director of Public Instruction, recently published at Hanoi, we learn that while on M. Bert's arrival there were only three schools in which French was taught, there are now a college for interpreters, primary schools for both boys and girls, a free school of design, and 140 "écoles libres de caractères latins." These are very numerously attended, chiefly by adults, the studies being the Chinese characters and the transcription of Annamite into Latin letters. In the college are taught French, Annamite, and diplomatic Chinese, which differs in many respects from the language either of the people or the literates.

The recent meeting of the Hygienic Congress at Vienna has done good service in calling attention to the subject of school hygiene, and especially to an evil more or less common in all German schools. In the discussions before the Congress the undoubted increase of nearsightedness among school-children was declared to be in no small degree due to the wretched typography of the text-books in use; the editions of the modern classics, in particular, being for the most part so poorly printed that their use must of necessity be extremely injurious to the eyesight of the pupils. The Austrian Minister of Public Instruction has, in consequence, issued a circular instructing the school authorities to exercise a strict supervision over the typography of the school-books, and to see that it is in conformity with hygienic principles. They are further instructed to discard at once from class use and from school libraries all books which do not fulfil this condition, and to replace them by such as can be used without risk to the eyes. Among the editions condemned by this decree are those published by P. Reclam of Leipzig, the series known as "Meyers Volksbücher," and the editions of modern classics issued in the "Collection Friedberg und Mode." It is to be hoped that the crusade against these abominably printed, almost illegible books may be vigorously carried on, not only in Austria, but throughout Germany, and that it may end in the general adoption of Roman type.

Mr. Townsend MacCoun, 150 Nassau Street, sends us the promised plan of the Athenian Acropolis drawn by Mr. S. B. P. Trowbridge of the American School, to show the results of the latest explorations of that classic site. The lithographed plate measures 22x15 inches, is lettered in English and in Greek, and marks by arrows the direction of monuments beyond its own scope. Its use in teaching is obvious. For private reference it would be well if it were sold mounted and folded.

The ancient Sanskrit writer Kalidasa's drama "Urvasi," in a free German translation by Lodedanz, with music by Grandaur, which had been performed in private before King Ludwig II. some two years ago, was publicly given for the first time in the Court Theatre, Munich, on December 19, 1887. The play was greeted by a full house, and, as a spectacular exhibition, is said to have been the finest ever seen on the Munich stage; the decorations, costumes, lighting, etc., calling forth enthusiastic applause. As a play, however, it is too barren of incident and sensation to satisfy the modern theatre-goer, according to the critic of the *Allgemeine Zeitung*.

The Italian poet Giosuè Carducci on January 8 delivered in Rome a lecture entitled 'L'Opera di Dante,' which has since been published at Bologna by Zanichelli.

Madam Mario, widow of the Italian patriot, Alberto Mario, has just presented to the city of Milan the secret proceedings and correspondence with the army and with Turin of the Provisional Government of Lombardy from March to August, 1848. They had been preserved by the late Dr. Agostino Bertani, and deposited with the Marios. Carlo Cattaneo made use of them in his *Archivio Triennale*, and Bertani obtained them from his effects.

The fifty-sixth annual report of the Trustees of the Perkins Institution for the Blind at South Boston, Mass., presents in great detail the case of a little blind deaf-mute whose instruction deserves to be recorded if not ranked with that of Laura Bridgman. Mr. Anagnos says of Helen Keller, the loss of whose faculties began at nineteen months, before she could talk, and whose enlightenment was undertaken by Miss Annie M. Sullivan six years afterwards, that "the total sum of the knowledge which she acquired in four months exceeds that which Laura Bridgman obtained in more than two years." Numerous facsimiles illustrate the interesting narrative. The first annual report of the Kindergarten for the Blind is added to the pamphlet.

The annual report of the President of Ohio State University shows that in 1886-'87 13.7 per cent. of the whole number of students were women. He expresses surprise that he has never received a single inquiry concerning instruction in household economy. The elective system has been tried and found satisfactory in the main: "genuine interest in study has been promoted." The demerit system has been abolished, even to dispensing with the record of absences at chapel. "The marking of rolls during the progress of religious exercises, or even at a meeting held for religious exercises, seems to be incongruous, not to say irreverent, and tends to counteract in many minds the salutary influence which the worship might otherwise have." The President would also be glad to make chapel attendance purely voluntary. The Harvard leaven is working.

—Letters, like books, have their fate. Little could Mendelssohn have imagined that the letters he wrote to his friend Moscheles would be printed for the first time half a century later in an English translation in an American magazine. The February *Scribner* contains a number of these letters, with comments by W. F. Apthorp, and the March number is to contain some more. They are from the MSS. in the possession of Felix Moscheles, and are accompanied by five fine portraits, a cast of Mendelssohn's hand, and other illustrations, some of which indicate that Mendelssohn, like Goethe, had some talent for sketching. The letters are of more than average interest, but their critical tone will surprise those who think of Mendelssohn's character as being as suave as his music. Wagner himself rarely made more caustic remarks about his contemporaries than Mendelssohn does about Liszt, Berlioz, Heller, Chopin, and others. Mr. Apthorp comments on this, that Mendelssohn must have instinctively felt and abhorred the powers that were destined to partially dethrone him in the concert hall. Prof. Shaler writes very fully of volcanoes, both descriptively and scientifically, and he endeavors to point out to us the great utility of these terrible vents which, of all natural objects, have been the most destructive of a belief in nature's beneficence, and, together with tornadoes, pestilence, and famine, have been devoted, from old time, to the ministry of heaven's most immitigable wrath. Prof. Shaler reckons that the Java group have ejected into the sea within a century twenty times as much matter as the Mississippi has carried down on its current, and thinks it not unlikely that the ocean obtains as much solid material from the volcanoes as from the rivers. In several other ways, also, he finds them a restorative agency. Mr. Joseph B. Bishop contributes an article upon the general subject of the means to be used to take the printing and distribution of the ballot out of the hands of the managers of the campaign funds, and discusses incidentally other ways of limiting the use of money in the electoral machinery. The paper is well informed and timely, in connection with the proposed statute in this State. Prof. William James writes, from a scientific point of view, upon the Will, and analyzes what goes on when an act of volition is performed, as a physiological psychologist sees such phenomena. Mr. Stimson's novel takes us to a pleasanter region than in its first chapters, and to more attractive characters, drawn without satire and touched by the fondness he has before shown for Berkshire; while Mr. Wendell's story, very carefully studied in its setting and movement, pushes audacity so far as to give us, as the children say, a "truly" ghost.

—The October-November number of the *Library Chronicle*, which has just come to hand, contains the interesting and important paper "On the Present Aspect of the Question, Who was the Inventor of Printing?" read by Wm. Blades before the British Library Association at the Birmingham meeting last September. Going back to 1870, when the Costerians, as he says, never were stronger—on their side being Bernard, Ottley, Holtrop, Campbell, Berjeau, Humphreys, and others, including Blades himself—he tells how the publication of Van der Linde's letters to the *Nederlandsche Spectator*, afterwards reprinted in book form, wrought such consternation in the ranks of the Costerians that they threw down their arms, and their rout was considered final, for even the Dutch bibliographers, with the exception of Van Meurs, seemed struck dumb with dismay. In 1871 Hessels translated Van der Linde's book into English, and so impressed was Blades with its importance that, at some expense, he printed it in order that English readers might keep abreast with the new learning, and it appeared under the title 'The Haarlem Legend of the Invention of Printing Critically Examined.' The conclusions of Van der Linde were adopted by De Vinne in his 'Invention of Printing' (1876), and the current of opinion ran strongly against the Costerians.

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In 1878 Van der Linde published his 'Gutenberg: Geschichte und Erdichtung aus den Quellen nachgewiesen,' of which Blades justly says, "There is little that is new in this work except its increased bulk. The story of the legend is retold, and, if possible, with more bad taste than before. Great ability is shown in his treatment of the subject, and the author argues throughout like a clever barrister whose fame and future depended upon success." Hessels, undertaking to review this work, spent three years in the examination of sources and documents, and published in 1882 his 'Gutenberg: Was he the Inventor of Printing?' in which he gave a critical study of the whole question, denouncing Van der Linde as altogether untrustworthy, and declaring that he had not found anything which would enable him to answer the question, "Was Gutenberg the inventor of printing?" with either yes or no.

—In 1886 Van der Linde published at the expense of the German Government a large work in three folio volumes, entitled 'Geschichte der Erfindung der Buchdruckerkunst,' characterized by Blades as "a notable piece of bookmaking, sheet after sheet being occupied with mere padding. There is nothing except luxurious printing and a lot of unimportant plates to distinguish it from his former work, 'Gutenberg.'" The publication of this work called forth from Hessels a series of articles on "The History of the Invention of Printing," which appeared in the *Academy* (April to August, 1887), and have recently been revised and issued in book form under the title 'Haarlem the Birthplace of Printing, not Mentz.' Hessels here vigorously disputes Van der Linde's conclusions, denounces his blunders, exposes his pretensions to original research, and advances his own reasons for attributing to Haarlem the earliest attempts at types. After having given an outline of the course of the controversy, Blades briefly states the main facts adduced in support of Gutenberg's claim, and asks: "To what, then, does the evidence so far point? This—that Gutenberg was a famous printer, who was the first to bring his art to that perfection which we trace in the Mazarine Bible and in the beautiful Mayence Psalter, printed by his associates and successors, Fust and Schœffer." He next gives an outline of the evidence on the Costerian side, the narrative of Junius, the statement of the Cologne Chronicle, and the so-called 'Costeriana,' which Van der Linde places about 1474, while Hessels assigns them to the period 1446-74. But though Hessels believes that the Coster mentioned in the archives as living in Haarlem, 1436-83, was the inventor of types, Blades would like to wait for more evidence, and urges the thorough examination of the ancient bindings of incunabula in the great libraries of Europe, saying that "the more these are examined the longer will be the list of 'Costeriana,' and it is quite probable that somewhere will be discovered a date or a fact which will turn the probability that Holland was the birthplace of printing into an acknowledged historical fact." At present he admits that, however strong the circumstantial evidence in favor of Holland may be, the verdict cannot be given positively to either party, although he has little doubt as to which side all future evidence will tend towards. These expressions, coming as they do from an authority at once so competent and cautious, must carry great weight, and will incline many to falter in their allegiance to Gutenberg.

—The same number of the *Library Chronicle* contains the paper read at the Birmingham meeting by F. Madan of the Bodleian Library, entitled "What to Aim at in Local Bibliography," in the first part of which he gives some valuable suggestions, derived from his own personal experience, as to the method to be pursued. He recommends the formation of five lists, the first of which should be a list of printed books and pamphlets relating to the town or district; in this list he insists that the arrangement should be chronological, not alphabetical, nor according to subject, but provided with author and subject indexes. Next there should be a collection of slips containing references to MS. material for local history, and for this list he prefers a subject arrangement. The third list should be of plans, maps, and engravings, also arranged according to subject. The fourth list should be one of "fugitive pieces," including under this term, in general, pieces of less than five pages, such as fly-sheets, addresses, lists, and appeals. "Of these fly-sheets there should be a rough list on a chronological basis; not so detailed as to wear away one's life, but sufficient to distinguish each piece from every other." Lastly there should be a complete chronological list of all the books printed or published in the town or district, a history of the local press. In the second part of the paper he attempts to distinguish between sanity and insanity in the work—that is, between the limits of reasonable energy and of unreasonable or misdirected enthusiasm. The first principle he lays down is this: "If our locality be so small or unhistoric that there is very little to record, record the whole of it; if there be too large a literature for that, then *separate, criticise, decide.*" A few examples of debatable ground are given; thus, in the matter of sermons, he would neglect all sermons which do not contain allusions to local history. The newspaper has superseded the necessity for collecting *everything*, but special attention should be paid to fugitive pieces relating to societies, clubs, etc., not likely to be preserved in the newspapers. Again, all books privately printed in a place should be procured, if possible, and entered in the list. The person who should do this work is the local librarian.

—It would seem as if all possible expedients for protecting the rights of authorship had been discussed of late; but here is one which has escaped general notice, despite its efficacy, which is beyond question. A work entitled 'Albertus Magnus: approved and verified, both sympathetic and natural Egyptian secrets, for man and beast' (we dare not tamper with the phraseology or punctuation), was published at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in the year 1875. It belongs to a class of "magic books" which, in English or in German, have to this day some circulation among the Pennsylvania Dutch. The preface to the second volume closes as follows:

"Inasmuch as, at this juncture, all looks so gloomy in society, the writer of this expects that no pirate of books will wrongfully seize this work and reprint the same, if such an one does not wish to incur the eternal curse and even condemnation from such an act. While we recommend it to the protection of God and the Holy Trinity, that they may be watching the same, and set the angel Michael as watch and guard over the undertaking, so that no pirate may rob the real and legal owner of the means of deriving his daily bread from the sale of this publication, and cheat him of his property by the peril of losing his blessedness, such a being would never find rest nor quiet, by day or night, neither here below nor in the hereafter, by seeking to defraud the publisher of his own. This would God the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit grant. Mirathe saepy Satonich petanish pistau ytmye higarin,"

and four more lines of what we take to be a cabalistic anathema upon the aforesaid pirate. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. Here is a book which never was copyrighted, and which has yet defied piracy for upwards of twelve years. Success begets respect; and one turns with interest to the body of the book, which may be heartily commended to such as would know how "To Cause a Witch to die within one Minute."

—It sounds a little odd when the motive of a State historical document is confessed to be the fact that "New Englanders will occasionally assert that New York did very little to assist her sister colonies in the struggle for independence more than one hundred years ago." This avowal introduces the preface to vol. xv of 'Documents relating to the Colonial History of the State of New York,' edited by Berthold Fernow (State Archives, vol. i.—The Revolution). Upwards of 600 quarto pages embalm some 40,000 names of men who served in a military or naval capacity during the Revolution. This aggregate does not appear to be exhaustive, even disregarding the defects of the archives at Albany and at Washington, for "in giving the names of the officers and of a few men of the first and second 'Continental Establishments' [*i. e.*, first and second calls by the Provincial Congress in 1775, 1776], the Editor has tried to avoid repeating lists of names, etc., already published in the 'Calendar of Revolutionary Papers,' two volumes, published by authority of the State in 1868." He first prints pertinent extracts from the Proceedings of the Provincial Congress, the Committee of Safety, and the Convention of New York relating to Military Matters. These naturally contain the only readable portions of the volume, and a good deal may be found in them about "the people called *Green Mountain Boys*," living in "the several Townships on the New Hampshire Grants, West of the Range of the Green Mountains," their uniform when enrolled (a green color), "the disputes already subsisting among their chiefs, the principles whereof we are strangers to," etc. Capt. Alexander Hamilton is ordered to put a guard of his artillery company over the colony records, till relieved by Col. Lasher's Independents under an order of Gen. Putnam's. There are a number of communications from John Hancock. In a footnote to page 132 the editor gives an estimate of the population of the colonies in 1776, which foots up 3,680,000, or a million more than Prof. F. B. Dexter of Yale has recently allowed as the result of his investigations. There are very full indexes of names to this valuable work.

—The last *Revue Bleue* of 1887 is a memorial number, devoted to its founder and *directeur*, M. Eugène Yung, who died December 26 at the age of sixty years. Many, even among the constant readers of the *Revue* which he conducted, know little more than the mere name of this active and able literary worker, who from the beginning of his career did so much to encourage and bring forward, and even in a measure to form, young and unknown writers who later became authors of note. M. Jules Lemaitre, writing of him with affection and admiration in the *Journal des Débats* of December 27, expresses his own gratitude to him, relating how, when his first article fell under the observation of M. Yung, he inquired out the young author, who was as delighted as he was surprised to receive, in the little provincial town where he was professor, the letter in which it was proposed to him to write for the *Revue*. "My coming to Paris I owe to him: if I have worked well, to him I owe it." In another place he says, "There are many of us who owe much to Eugène Yung," and he explains how the young writers whose promise M. Yung had recognized put aside, under his guidance, their youthful affectation and bad taste, and ma-

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tured and developed more quickly all they had in them that was good. The same thing is said, not only by other young writers whose early attempts in literature were made in the *Revue Bleue*, but by men of long-established reputation, his comrades of the *lycée* and the École Normale—Weiss, Sarcey, Dionys Ordinaire. The last of these, who is not only a member of the Chamber of Deputies and a journalist, but also one of the familiar writers of the *Revue Bleue*, speaking of their conversations about his articles, says, "We would dispute about a title, a phrase to be struck out, a word, a period, and it was always he in the end who proved to be right, for he was good sense embodied, and, besides, he possessed an exquisite literary delicacy and tact." M. Weiss calls him an "inventeur d'esprits"; M. Sarcey says of him, "He was a born *directeur de journal*, or, to use a broader expression, a born *impresario*," and then, in his usual lively manner, Sarcey shows him in the exercise of his functions as secretary to Buloz of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, a position he seems to have won by the striking ability displayed in his thesis for his doctor's degree, 'Henri IV. considéré comme écrivain,' which, singularly enough, is the only thing of all he has written which remains as a volume. Sarcey tells how Yung wrote to him, then an unknown professor in a provincial *lycée*, asking him for an article for the great *Revue*, of which he traced for him the general plan and arrangement, and indicated the length advisable. Sarcey refused, not suspecting then that he too was destined to become a writer. And he adds that this attempt was probably often made with others, for he was not among Yung's intimates at the École Normale, nor even in his class. He seems to have had an instinctive appreciation of promising literary talent; he sought it out and excited it.

—If it was not to Yung that Sarcey owed his entrance into literature, it was he who forced him, in spite of himself, into the *conférence*, in which he has since won some of his greatest successes. He had lectured only twice, and made such a complete failure that he had sworn never again to address an audience. With many entertaining details he relates how he was persuaded to break his vow by Eugène Yung, who had had a new hall placed gratuitously at his disposal for lectures, but who had neither lecturers nor a public. He found both. Without putting himself forward, with discretion and patience that never failed, "il sut mettre en branle toutes les cloches de la publicité." He had articles everywhere—articles inspired, almost dictated, by himself; not vulgar puffs, of which he had a horror, but interesting and solid and even learned articles, which were irresistibly attractive. It became the fashion to attend these lectures; ladies in full dress came to listen to them before going to a ball; the memory of their success has become a tradition among Parisians. For lecturers he had, of his comrades at the École Normale, Taine, Weiss, Deschanel, Sarcey. Yung himself never spoke, never appeared, although it was he who guided and moulded the whole. His personal withdrawal from publicity, his moderation, and his talent for organization won for him a great influence in the Paris of the last years of the Empire. In a charming and touching page at the beginning of this memorial number of the *Revue Bleue*, M. Weiss, one of the oldest of his friends, recalls the events of the life of Eugène Yung. They were in the same class in the Collège Louis-le-Grand as boys, and the École Normale as young men; they taught together in the same *lycée* at La Rochelle. When Yung became secretary of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* under Buloz, his first thought was to open its pages to his friend; when Weiss went to Paris to write editorially in the *Journal des Débats*, he induced the *directeur* to give Yung also a place on the paper. They were both Protestants, and both held similar liberal doctrines in politics and in literature, though Yung was less conservative, having been a republican from the days of 1848. He did not enter directly into politics, either personally or by his writings; but, by the various courses of lectures which he directed as well as by the *Revue* he founded, he influenced public opinion powerfully and durably during the period which prepared for the coming of the Third Republic, when in both fields the open discussion of political questions was impossible. The *Revue Bleue* had very modest beginnings. The first weekly number appeared in December, 1863. It was then called the *Revue des Cours Littéraires*, and was little beyond the reproduction of some of the most marked among the lectures and lessons of the Collège de France, the Sorbonne, and the higher schools. After the Franco-Prussian war, its title was changed to *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, and this in turn became familiarly the *Revue Bleue*, on account of the color of its cover—a title which a year or two ago was officially adopted. It is this weekly periodical, which has grown gradually into something quite singular of its kind, intermediate between the daily newspaper of the best class and the great *revues*, which Eugène Yung directed and managed for twenty-five years, and which remains his best monument and memorial.

GARIBALDI'S MEMOIRS.

Memorie di Giuseppe Garibaldi. Florence: Barbèra.

THE enterprising firm of the Barbèra brothers announces "ready for publication, the Autobiography of General Garibaldi," and the announcement will be received with pleasurable surprise, because, at the time of the General's death, in 1882, it was affirmed that these Memoirs were not to appear for at least ten years. The single volume of less than five hundred pages of which we have been favored with the proof-sheets, is issued without any attempt at editorship, with no preface save the author's own. The work is divided into five parts. The first period commences with reminiscences of Garibaldi's childhood. An affectionate tribute is paid to his worthy father, his worshipped and really angelic mother. Then, after a description of his seafaring life, barely alluding to his share in young Italy's adventures, "an exile and condemned to death," he narrates with evident gusto every detail of his South American experiences, his meeting with Anita, the formation of the Italian Legion in Montevideo, its heroic combats, alternate defeats and successes, the crowning victory of S. Antonio, the refusal of himself and his legion to accept the land and rewards offered them; ending with slight biographical sketches of such dead and wounded as he remembers. The second period embraces the revolutionary year of 1848, the war against the Austrians, the defence of the Roman Republic, the disastrous retreat (ending with the death of Anita), his second exile, his sojourn in the United States, his return to political life, the Franco-Italian campaign against Austria in 1859, his sojourn in Central Italy. The third period is entirely devoted to his grand campaigns for the liberation of southern Italy, starting with the famous Thousand from Quarto in May to the last combat at Caserta Vecchia on the 2d of October and his return to Caprera. The fourth period embraces Aspromonte, in 1862, the campaign of the Tyrol in 1866, the attempt on Rome in 1867, ending with the disaster of Mentana on the 3d of November. The fifth and last period closes with the French campaign, and then, as "an Appendix to my Memoirs, Civitavecchia, July 15, 1875," we have a short but admirable criticism on the battle of Custoza.

We do not attempt here any critical review of this autobiography *sui generis*. As a general rule, criticism is only fair when the work itself is before the reading public, and a translation of these Memoirs for foreign readers would need a very careful preface or appendix in which the chief historical facts and dates of Italian revolutions should be given. From the testimony of Guerzoni, in his life of the hero, and from our own memory of chapters and paragraphs shown or read to us by the General himself, at different periods of our thirty years' intercourse, we see that he has purposely omitted from the "Memoirs to be published" a number of documents and facts that he had consigned to paper, just passing from one campaign to another without any connecting links or explanatory circumstances. A translator's preface would have to supply this deficiency, and also publish a number of admirable letters written by the General himself to the King, to Mazzini, to Cavour, and to other important personages with whom he was brought in contact by political affairs. As in life so in his records, he never understands or appreciates Mazzini, and, with the fullest intention of being just and generous, falls into numerous errors of fact. All these, we may be sure, will be rectified by Aurelio Saffi, Mazzini's fellow-triumvir, devoted disciple, and conscientious biographer.

Again, we regret that the General's letter to the Papal Nuncio in Montevideo, offering his services to Pio Nono in 1848, is omitted, as the letter and the offer would have sufficed alone to explain Garibaldi's constant attacks on priestcraft and priests, which will offend unnecessarily devoted Catholics and yet faithful subjects of the King of United Italy, honest citizens in every way. The fact that the papacy has been for centuries the obstacle to the formation of an Italian nation by summoning foreigners to Italian soil; Pio Nono's conduct in 1849, when he blessed the Croats as his beloved children, and withdrew his troops from Lombardy when, united with the Piedmontese and the volunteers, they might have expelled the Austrians from the Peninsula; the four foreign armies summoned to replace the Pope on his throne of "4,000 corpses"; the last final summons of the "marvellous chassepots" to drive out Garibaldi and his volunteers from the Roman Campagna after the victory of Monterotondo—filled the great patriot's heart with such grief and indignation that he feels himself compelled to vent it on every occasion and apropos of every event.

The Memoirs will be eagerly devoured by Italians, while foreigners will be especially pleased by its simple narratives and admirable military criticisms. Here Garibaldi is perfectly impartial; even while narrating the great field-battle of the Volturno, he dwells far more on the defects of his own military plans than on the almost miraculous feats performed by his handful of volunteers electrified by his voice and eye. Perhaps the following extracts from the tenth and eleventh chapters of the second period may serve to give an idea of the matter-of-fact way in which he accepts the ups and downs of life, attributing his hardships to circumstances rather than to men, feeling more surprise than anger when they are specially untoward, even as, when things went contrary, his

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one remark ever was: "C'est un fait, c'est singulier!" At the time referred to in this extract, life looked gloomy to him in every sense. Rome had fallen. The French were entering Rome:

"Mr. Cass, the American Minister, knowing the state of affairs, sent word on the 2d of July, 1849, that he wished to speak to me. Going to his house, I met him in the street. He, in the kindest manner, placed an American man-of-war, lying off Civitavecchia, at my disposal, giving me leave to go on board with such of my comrades as might run risks by remaining. I thanked the generous representative of the great republic, telling him, however, that I meant to leave Rome with all those who chose to accompany me, and try yet to achieve something for our country, whose fortunes did not seem to me even then altogether desperate."

There follows the harrowing description of that attempt — France and Austria joining hands to seize the dreaded "red devil," and to disperse his followers, the Tuscans shutting their gates at his approach, the inhabitants of the Romagna turning a deaf ear to his appeal. He is heart-sick at the state of Anita, who, though already ill, had shorn her hair and dressed as a soldier to follow her beloved, and to all his remonstrances (she was on the eve of becoming a mother for the sixth time) making answer: "You wish to abandon me." His men desert, he reaches the republic of San Marino, where, he says: "On the steps of a church outside the city I wrote the following proclamation: 'Soldiers! I absolve you from your pledge to accompany me. Return to your homes, but remember that Italy ought not to be left to the shame of servitude.'" But for him and his few faithful ones surely Venice is left to die in? Not so. Just as he sights the lagoons, the Austrian men-of-war discover and attack his tiny fleet of fishing boats. Anita is dying, he carries her in his arms to a peasant's hut, receives her dying kiss, and, before the corpse lying in his arms is cold, he is compelled to abandon it: the Austrians are on his track. Another month of hiding, of danger, of hair-breadth escapes: every man's hand is against him whose hand is only raised against the foes of Italy. Finally, a fisherman volunteers to go for his boat and convey them in safety to the Ligurian shores, if meanwhile they can lie in hiding in the woods along the shore between the sea and the Maremma. They succeed, and the fisherman comes with his boat.

"There, in the harbor of S. Sterbino, the little craft awaited us, and we embarked, touched by the proofs of affection lavished on us by our generous liberators. . . . How proud I am to have been born in Italy, where, despite the rule of priests and thieves, our youths are growing up to despise dangers, torture, peril, and death, to march calmly to the fulfilment of their duty, the emancipation of their country from her chains.

"In the Genoese fishing boat we sailed for the isle of Elba, to take in provisions and fishing gear, and passed a night and part of a day at Porto Longone. Thence, coasting along the Tuscan shore without stopping at Leghorn, we continued our course westwards. I did not deceive myself as to the unfavorable reception which awaited me on the part of the Government in the Sardinian States, and I was half inclined to ask for a berth on board an English vessel anchored in the port of Leghorn; but the longing to see my children before leaving Italy, where I knew I should not be allowed to remain, prevailed.

"In September we landed safely at Porto Venere. There and at Chiavari nothing new; in this latter city I was received in the house of my cousin, Bartolomeo Pucci, of cherished memory, and we were welcomed by his kindly family, by the population of Chiavari, and by the numerous Lombards who had taken refuge there after the battle of Novara. But as soon as General La Marmora, then royal commissary at Genoa, learnt of my arrival, he gave orders that I should be transferred to that city, escorted by a captain of carabineers in plain clothes. General La Marmora's proceedings did not surprise me; he was but the willing instrument of the policy that then prevailed in our country, besides being on his own account a natural enemy to all who, like myself, were stained with the republican bar sinister. So I was shut up in a secret cell of the Ducal palace in Genoa, thence transported by night on board the war frigate *S. Michele*, treated, notwithstanding, with deference in Genoa by La Marmora and on board by the chivalrous commander, Persano. All I asked was for twenty-four hours to go to Nice and take leave of my children, promising to return to my temporary prison, and La Marmora gave me leave on parole. I don't know whether policemen in disguise were on board the *S. Michele*, but certainly news had been sent to Nice, and the carabineers were on the alert. As usual, the authorities detained me on board for several hours, so that I had barely time to reach Cavas, where my children were, pass the night there, and return at once.

"The sight of my children, whom I was obliged to abandon, grieved me deeply. It is true that they were left in friendly hands; the two boys (Menotti and Ricciotti) with my cousin Augustus Garibaldi, and my Teresita with Mr. and Mrs. Deideri, who were like parents to her. But I had to quit them for an indefinite space of time—this was made clear to me when I was summoned to choose my place of exile.

"And here I cannot pass over in silence the manly defence of my cause assumed by the liberal members of the Piedmontese Parliament, Baralis, Borella, Valerio, Brofferio, who made such a powerful appeal in my favor that if they did not succeed in getting the sentence of banishment revoked, assuredly they saved me from a still harsher fate. The insatiable bloodthirstiness of the Austro-clerical party, victorious throughout the peninsula, was rife even in Piedmont. The hopes I still cherished that brighter destinies were in store for my country suggested my choice of Tunis as a near abode in exile, especially as I knew I should find there Castelli of Nice, a friend of my childhood, and Pedriani, also a friend and fellow-exile of 1834. But, embarked for Tunis on board the war steamer *Tripoli*, I found that the Government, subservient to French orders, would none of me, so I was carried back and deposited on the island of La Maddalena, where I remained twenty days.

"There, ludicrous to relate, were not wanting those who insinuated in the ear of the Sardinian Government (or it may be that they feigned the belief) that I was bent on revolutionizing the islanders, half of whom in those days were pensioners or servants of the Crown. A kindly population they were, though, and they treated me right well! So from the island of La Maddalena I was escorted to Gibraltar by the war brig *Colomba*. The English Governor gave me six days to take myself off. The gratitude and affection which I have ever cherished for the generous English nation made this discourteous, futile, and unworthy proceeding doubly hard to bear. . . .

"Still clear out I must, even if nothing but jumping into the sea was left; and, following the advice of friends, I decided to cross the straits and seek a refuge in Africa, where G. B. Carpeneto, the Sardinian Consul at Tangiers, welcomed me to his house, and, with my two companions and officers, Leggioro and Coccelli, we were hospitably entertained for six months. At Modigliana I found a beneficent priest,* and at Tangiers an honest and generous royal consul, and to both I owe a debt of gratitude. True is the old proverb: 'The frock does not make the monk.' . . .

"At Tangiers, with my generous host Carpeneto, I passed my time as tranquilly and happily as an Italian exile far from his country and his dear ones could expect to do. At least twice a week we went shooting, and game was abundant. A friend lent me a little boat, so we made up fishing parties, and fish also was plentiful. The courteous hospitality with which Mr. Murray, the English Vice-Consul, welcomed me to his house, lured me at times from my solitary and rustic habits.

"Nor did *all* my Italian friends forget me in absence. Francesco Carpeneto, who had been most kind to me from the time of my return to Italy, in 1848, bethought himself of a plan to enable me to earn my living, and tried to collect sufficient money among his own friends and mine for the purchase of a vessel of which I was to have the command. This scheme pleased me; unable to do aught towards the fulfilment of my political mission, I caught at the chance of being able to work, hoping as a merchant-trader to become independent and no longer remain at the charge of my generous and hospitable friends. So I at once acceded to Francesco's plan, and made arrangements to start for the United States, where a vessel might be purchased. In June, 1850, I embarked for Gibraltar, thence for Liverpool and New York. Crossing the Atlantic, I was seized with rheumatic pains, and on landing was unable to stir, was set on shore like a bale of goods, on Staten Island, and, still suffering from my illness, passed a month, partly on that island and partly in the house of my dear and good friend, Michele Pastacaldi, where I enjoyed the friendly companionship of Foresti, one of the illustrious martyrs of the Spielberg. Carpeneto's plan came to nothing; he had only been able to place three shares of $2,000 each with the Camozzi brothers of Bergamo and one Piazzoni, and what vessel in America could be purchased for $6,000? A small coasting vessel, perhaps, but, not being an American subject, I should have been obliged to take an American captain, which would not have paid.

"But something I must do! A kind, sterling Florentine friend, Antonio Meucci, had decided on setting up a candle factory, and offered me work in his establishment. Said and done! Without capital I could not take shares in his speculation, as the $6,000, proving insufficient for the purchase of a vessel, remained in Italy; so I made up my mind to work on whatever conditions should be offered. And for several months I worked with Meucci, who did not treat me like a common workman, but with the utmost kindness as one of the family.

"One day, however, tired of tallow-boiling, and very likely impelled by my natural and habitual restlessness, I left the house, resolved to seek a different employment. I remembered my seafaring life, knew a little English, and so went down to the shore, where coasting vessels were loading and unloading their cargoes. I asked the first to take me as a sailor; those on board the vessel went on with their work, scarcely giving heed to my request. I tried the second, with the same result. Then I passed on to a third, asked some men who were unloading to let me help; the answer was that they wanted no help. But I persisted: 'I don't want pay; let me work to warm myself'—it was actually snowing; no answer whatever. I felt mortified. I lived again in memory the days when I was honored with the command of the fleet of Montevideo and her gallant and immortal army! What did all that avail? I was not wanted now! However, I swallowed my mortification and returned to my tallow-boiling. Most fortunate was it that I had not acquainted Meucci, excellent man, with my resolution; so the vexation, known only to myself, was lessened. And here let me state that nothing in the conduct of my kind master had prompted my untimely resolve; he and his wife, Mrs. Hester, were lavish in their benevolence and friendliness."

How strangely reads this episode now—with the hero of countless victories, the liberator of Italy, lying there on lone Caprera beneath the granite slab, while his countrymen erect monuments in every city to his memory, identifying his name with independence from the foreigner in the past, and hopes for freedom from moral thraldom in the future!

* Don Giovanni Veritas, a patriot priest who saved the fugitives after Anita's death.

McMASTER'S FRANKLIN.

Benjamin Franklin as a Man of Letters. [American Men of Letters.] By John Bach McMaster. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1887. ix., 293 pp. 16mo.

It is almost a century since Franklin died, yet during that time his reputation has had few hard shocks, and he is to-day, as he was when living, a very popular hero. Image-breakers have not of course wholly neglected him, but they have not shattered the aggregate of excellences which make up his fame. The hero of the Autobiography—or what has passed for it so many years—is still cherished, while the warnings of the historically cautious are not listened to. For one unhappy infant who is christened John Adams or Alex-

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ander Hamilton, there are a hundred who press on to manhood under the burden of the name of Benjamin Franklin. But the ambition of parents has had in mind the statesman, the politician, the diligent printer, or the thrifty tradesman; probably Franklin the man of literature never had a namesake. It is with the clear advantage of a fresh topic that Professor McMaster approaches a subject about which no author until now has seriously troubled himself. To be sure, Franklin holds, by common consent, at home and abroad, a high position in American letters, which has been accorded him in a generous but uncritical and unconcerned spirit. Mr. McMaster's genius for making entertainment out of all he writes does not now desert him; he could, we think, if he would, make even the authenticity of Shakspere's works a readable matter, and he would have been forgiven had he swollen this one small volume into two. It is plain, however, that he has felt a restraint in passing from the life history of a nation to the closer consideration of one individuality. The unkindest thing one would wish to say of this book is that its author is too fond of a literary coach and six not to find a monograph somewhat slow-paced. The same modesty and the same freshness which were so charming in his larger 'History,' are both here to maintain a growing reputation already enviable.

In no marked degree do the documents lately acquired by the State Department seem to have aided in strengthening previous knowledge about Franklin, or in more sharply defining his place in literature. Valuable as it no doubt is, it appears to be admitted that the "Stevens Collection" is to be chiefly useful for purposes of correction or verification, and that Mr. Bigelow's new edition of Franklin's works, so far as it has been reinforced by these papers, is sufficiently exhaustive and definitive. Mr. McMaster has fallen back upon his usual method of throwing the most brilliant side-lights possible upon his subject. His facile skill in exploring old newspapers and other contemporary sources has enabled him profitably to use materials not commonly yielding rich results to investigators as painstaking though not as dexterous as he. The "accessories" in Professor McMaster's style are often so dramatic or lively as to lend a sort of fictitious interest even to the character of the practical and hard-headed author of the 'Poor Richard Maxims.'

Everything which Franklin wrote or did had some clear purpose in view. There was in his nature no waste of force, and, what is more, no inner life, no intellectual retreat where he should abide apart for a season. His were not the usual habits of literary men, and hence it is, in literary annals, that his cannot be said to be an especially attractive or picturesque figure. He knew little of the horror of garrets, of hunger, or the rebuffs of the powerful. After the first few boyish, though always clever, successes in his brother's paper and elsewhere, he soon grew to know his own powers, and his shrewdness told him when to spread his pinions and when not to attempt vain flights. Success came surely to him after he had outwitted Bradford in Philadelphia, and in his newspaper and his pamphlets and in the Junto he had readers and listeners with whom he could do as he pleased, and therein he had arrived at the Utopia of editors and publishers. The literary Franklin can only be known by close attention to the details of his busy life, and therefore Prof. McMaster has not erred in making a biographical study in which the writings come in for no more than their due and proportional recognition. So large a share of Franklin's literary remains consists of scientific papers of a long out-dated value and of correspondence of quite unequal interest, that nothing could be stupider than a critique of his works apart from a consideration of his vivid personality.

Franklin plainly revealed himself in all he wrote, and this has given an air of sincerity which has much to do with the unbounded admiration still held for him in America, and, it may almost be said, yet more firmly held in Europe. It is not at all to the purpose to ask what manner of man Franklin in reality was; this book, with the wonted courtesy of its author, waives the decision of that question. Franklin laid himself bare to the world almost as unreservedly as did Cellini or Rousseau, and the lesson of his life, down to the final date in the Autobiography, is explicit enough, nor is there the slightest reason to suppose that the Ethiopian afterwards changed his skin, or even wished to perform that miracle. A confession with Franklin was both repentance and absolution. Though not a few refuse homage to the personal character of this most brilliant man of affairs of American history, the evil that he did seems not to have lived after him, at least it is not commonly remembered against him. Nor was the good interred with his bones, for his memory to most people is still of sweet savor.

Prof. McMaster has not, then, set himself the ungracious task of undoing a reputation—such is not the cast of his disposition. He is, however, characteristically frank. To some extent he appears to share in the opinion, openly expressed to this day in Philadelphia, that Franklin was a consummate master of the art of success, financial and political. The subject is not altogether pleasant, yet if any one cares to see how Franklin stands in the eyes of many now living in the city of his adoption, let him turn to Mr. Horace W. Smith's 'Life and Correspondence of the Rev. William Smith, D.D.' (vol. i, pp. 344, 587, and elsewhere). It is noteworthy that in Massachusetts, where ethical judgments passed on public men are surely as severe as they are anywhere, Franklin's popular fame cannot be said to be tarnished. Had anything seriously affecting Franklin's reputation for better or worse turned up in the so-called "Stevens Collection," it is certain that it would have been made good use of in this book, but no such historical "find" has disclosed itself. The one literary performance which might tell us more of the hinted-at Gallic tendency of Franklin's later ethics, will, in all likelihood, never see the light in any common edition of his works, unless Mr. Bigelow decides or is permitted to print it. We do not forget that the late Henry Stevens once announced the publication of this bagatelle, but if it ever was printed, it is now rare with a rarity which that eminent bibliographer could so well effect.

The Franklin whom Mr. McMaster has constructed, of materials which he has been at much labor to collect, is very real, though perhaps there is not quite enough of him, for at times he becomes indistinct in the maze of contemporary life in the midst of which he moved—always the central figure. Vivid indeed are the pages given to the great election of 1764, when Franklin and Galloway ran for the Assembly—an event which is still a live topic in the city where it was held. A remarkable event it was, not only on account of the modernness of its conduct, but because it settled the reputation of Franklin among men of his day, and to some extent for all time. He was so much a man of the nineteenth century that his "methods" in business and politics were those of to-day; the quality of his wit, too, was essentially modern. He always knew a "good thing," and he never neglected the main chance. Now he was recasting and improving adages borrowed from almanacs forty years old when he was born, now making practical use of electrical theories which he found revolving in the mind of the more retiring Ebenezer Kinnersley. One sowed and another watered, his genius gave the increase; the world was the wiser for it, and Franklin waxed fat with success.

There is a fine opportunity, which Professor McMaster neglected to "improve," for moralizing on the impossibility of any man, however great, repeating the successes of Benjamin Franklin. It is simply out of the question that he could, in this age, have been preëminent in so many directions, great as his success might have been in one or a few. A money-making man of to-day, conducting a successful newspaper like the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, which had run off all competitors, and carrying on at the same time a lucrative retail business, could not afford to go into politics. Franklin went on his European errands because he was patriotic and ambitious as well to go, and because, too, he had made enough money to keep him comfortable in any event. Nowadays such a political mission would be ostentatiously made at a "great personal sacrifice." In literature, as in business and statecraft, it should always be remembered that he never had a rival worthy of the name. His mechanical genius was of a direct but not transcendent sort, so that, did he lay sticks for a fire, or hang a door, no one ever seems before to have done the thing at all well. How much of guile or sordidness there was in his nature is not to the point; he certainly was one of the few men of his time to discover that simplicity, like honesty, is a good policy. This unpretentiousness, assumed or not, of speech, garb, and literary style explains much of his success in France. While Lee chafed, and Adams was "respectable" and distant, Franklin was delighting everybody, from Court to populace, by eccentrically minding his own business, meanwhile in reality looking after the fate of a new nation, with his own *bonhomie*, of course. That he walked in the counsel of the ungodly is plainly shown in the flippant but clever pages of Bachaumont, but calumny did not seem to touch his skirts. There is reason to think that he held, as Disraeli did, later, that women's aid is an absolute necessity to political as well as social success. The French Court did not lack, at that time, those who were only too ready to be flattered into usefulness. To the last he was a French wit and man of the world, yet we choose to remember him as making pious and edifying suggestions, in his serene old age, before the Federal Convention, which we forget were dictated by policy as well as by conscience. Results achieved are what his countrymen have been wont to admire in Franklin. Their forbearance towards the manner of his successes and his moral insouciance has been of that easy, tolerant kind, of which Franklin so highly approved in several of his smaller writings.

What he wrote was after all but an outward expression of what he was. Even his *jeux d'esprit*, of which he was so vain, had practical ends. A perfect understanding of his whole life seems unavoidable if we would know his force as a man of letters. Such breadth of treatment may at times have lost sight of the primary object, but it shows a fairness due a great man by placing him on a large stage. More minuteness occasionally would not have injured the general plan. Considering the space given to the subject of piracy, which is suggested by Franklin's juvenile ballad-making on that always fascinating topic, it might be just to complain that further on Mr. McMaster has devoted too

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little attention to the vastly more important political meetings. Of some of the most interesting of those papers which best illustrate Franklin's purely literary style, no account is taken, beyond a bare mention of their titles. Some attention certainly should have been paid to Franklin's theories of a revised orthography on a phonetic basis, and of his relations with Webster in this matter—a subject on which little of a satisfactory nature has as yet been written. The memorial to Congress from the Pennsylvania Society for the Abolition of Slavery is unhesitatingly ascribed to the pen of Franklin. This, we had supposed, was not a certainty, although he signed the document. On page 271 it is stated that "Mr. Parton and Mr. Bigelow alone have reprinted Polly Baker's speech." It is worthy of remark that it was reprinted in *Hall's Law Journal* in 1813; in connection with which fact, two interesting notes are to be seen in the *Nation* for November 7 and December 26, 1878 (vol. 27, pp. 285, 398), in the first of which is given a summary of the famous speech.

Professor McMaster calls for a better edition of selections from Franklin's best literary productions. No one could do this more skilfully than himself. It might make Franklin's writings better known than in fact they are. Even the immortal Autobiography is in danger of being more talked about than read. Mr. Bigelow has, it is a pleasure to see, put Franklin's conjectural contributions to the *Pennsylvania Gazette* into his latest edition; it now remains for some one to reprint the "Dogood" papers, Franklin's earliest efforts, to which Mr. Parton first called attention, and quotations from which Professor McMaster freely cites, having apparently no doubt as to the author. Mr. Bigelow thus far ignores these early attempts, although he prints Franklin's "Skeleton sketch of the topics for the Autobiography," in which he admits the authorship of them.

STEWART AND GEE'S PHYSICS.

Lessons in Elementary Practical Physics. By Balfour Stewart, M.A., etc., and W. W. Haldane Gee. Vol. I. General Physical Processes. 8vo, pp. xvi, 291. Vol. II. Electricity and Magnetism. 8vo, pp. xx, 497. Macmillan & Co. 1885, 1887.

In 1870 the late Prof. Stewart published an elementary treatise on physics (3d ed., 1886) to which he gave the title 'Lessons in Elementary Physics.' We cannot regard the title as well chosen. It is true the chapters were divided into "lessons," presumably to render the work more convenient for use as a text-book; but this fact did not render the word a fitting one to go upon the title-page. In that position, so far as it conveyed any impression at all, it was one which was misleading, and calculated to hide the real merits of the work. When we take up a book entitled 'Lessons' in any science, we can hardly avoid the impression that it is somewhat fragmentary and disconnected; that it treats of special points which the author considered interesting or important, but that it does not pretend to be a systematic text-book or treatise on the subject to which it relates. But Prof. Stewart's book was by no means one of this kind. It began at the beginning, covered the whole ground, and, so far as regards fundamental principles, was a well-digested, well-developed, and very complete work. It was, in fact, an elementary treatise on physics, designed for use as a text-book in schools and for private study, and this, or something equivalent to this, should have been its title.

The work before us is of an entirely different character. When completed by the publication of the third volume on 'Heat, Light, and Sound,' supposing that volume to be constructed on the same plan as those which have already appeared, and considering the size of the volumes, it will be at least four times as large as the elementary work to which we have referred. Its title differs from the title of that work only by the insertion of the word "practical." But the work is not practical as opposed to theoretical. A large portion of the experiments are inserted for the sole reason that they serve to illustrate physical theories and are the foundations on which those theories are based. Neither is the work practical in the sense that its main object is to teach the application of physics to the business affairs of life. Of course very much is contained in the volume on electricity and magnetism the knowledge of which is of the greatest utility, even indispensable, to the electrical engineer, to the manufacturers of electrical machines, to the managers of telegraphs and telephones, and various others; but the object of the book is not to teach these gentlemen their business. The telegraph and the telephone are treated not as a means—at which we have not yet ceased to wonder—of communication between widely separated persons, but as the means nearest at hand to illustrate and explain some of the most important phenomena of that mysterious agent which promises so much and of which we still know so little. The work is, in fact, a treatise on experimental physics, and is practical in the sense of giving minute directions for the actual performance of those experiments upon which the science is based.

In what sense it is called an elementary work it would be hard to say. It is true that it gives detailed directions for the performance of the simpler as well as the more complicated experiments—for those that require only such simple apparatus as most students can prepare for themselves, as well as those which require the intervention of complicated and costly machines. But no one should be misled by the use of the word elementary on the title-page into the supposition that the work is suited for beginners. A large portion of the work would be of little or no use to those who had not previously studied some elementary treatise on physics, and for this preparatory study the elementary treatise first mentioned will on the whole be found the best, especially because it was written by the best-known author of the present work. But, whatever introductory treatise may be used, we can safely say of the students in high schools and colleges, that the more they already know of the science of physics, and the more ample the means of performing experiments to which they have access, the more useful they will find this work.

A considerable knowledge of the science, or rather sciences, of physics, is not the only qualification which the authors of this work assume that the student possesses. The number of mathematical formulæ is very great. This was unavoidable. The mathematical method is the only clear and satisfactory method in which a large part of the science can be treated. The authors seem to have made special efforts to render everything as clear and simple as possible; but if any one will look at "Lesson xix. General Theory of the Balance" (vol. i, p. 63), or "Chapter v. The Tangent Galvanometer" (vol. ii, pp. 225–274), he will see that they will be of very little use to him unless he is "well up" in his algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, and that in the former an acquaintance with the principles of the lever is also necessary. The processes of the differential and integral calculus are sometimes introduced, for example, in the chapter on Elasticity (vol. i, ch. vi), but not to such an extent as to render an ignorance of that branch of mathematics a serious impediment to the use of the work.

The chapters into which the work is divided commence usually with a short general introduction, giving such definitions and explanations as are necessary to the understanding of the lessons which follow. This general introduction is, however, sometimes omitted, and, as in the first chapter of the volume on Electricity and Magnetism, we are immediately set to work. The lessons are constructed throughout on one invariable and consistent plan; the metrical system, in the form known as the C. G. S. (Centimètre, Gramme, Second) system of measurements being, in almost all places employed, though ample tables and directions for converting the metrical into English measures are given. The opening lesson of vol. ii, which plunges at once *in medias res*, will serve as a specimen of all. It is entitled "Electrification by Friction and Conduction." First we have a minute statement, under eleven distinct heads, of the necessary "Apparatus." In order to show the minuteness and detailed accuracy and clearness with which this statement is made out, we will quote some of the divisions; we have not room for the whole:

"(1.) Two pieces of glass tubing about 350 mm. long by 15 mm. in diameter. Each must be closed at one end by the blow-pipe. The tubes must be thoroughly clean and dry. The open end should be closed by a cork to keep out dust. (2.) Several ebonite penholders. . . . (6.) A piece of catskin or other fur. . . . (11.) Several mètres of silk thread."

Then follows: "Experiment I. Electrification by Friction." And first we have a clear and precise statement of what the experimenter must do, and lastly a statement of the results, the inferences to which they necessarily lead, and the principles they appear to establish. Next comes "Experiment II. Electrification by Conduction," on the same general plan. This experiment is followed by a table containing "a list of substances in their approximate order of conductivity." Finally, we have: "Experiment III. All substances of a different nature may be electrified by being rubbed together." With a model example of the course to be pursued in order to establish this principle, the lesson ends. Two engravings of parts of the apparatus employed in these experiments are inserted in the text. The whole work is abundantly supplied with engravings made from drawings or photographs taken directly from the apparatus itself.

In the preface to the first volume the authors express the hope that their work may prove of use to three classes of students: "in the first place, those who are attending an elementary course in a well-furnished laboratory; secondly, those who have access to a laboratory containing only a few instruments; and thirdly, those who are desirous of acquiring a knowledge of the processes of physics while they have not the opportunity of working in any laboratory. This last class will value the engravings we have given." To the first class of students this work will be simply invaluable. By keeping it near at hand when working in the laboratory, they will save a vast amount of time and trouble to themselves in asking, to their teachers in answering, a multitude of questions. To the second class, so far as the apparatus to which they have access extends, the same remarks will apply as to the first; so far as they are obliged to do without apparatus they belong to the third class. The third class, who depend upon books alone, will, for the most part, be made up of those who have previously studied some elementary text-book of

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natural philosophy, and whose tastes lead them to desire a more extended acquaintance with the subject. Such persons will find in these volumes an elaborate description, accompanied with engravings, of the construction and manipulation of almost every instrument and machine that is found in the best furnished physical laboratories. By far the larger portion of the experiments will be perfectly intelligible to such readers. Precautions to be observed by the operator in order to avoid injury to himself or his instruments, and to secure a successful result to his experiments, directions for the care and preservation of apparatus when not in use, and other practical details, are given in their proper places throughout the work. We take it for granted that the concluding volume will contain an index to the whole work, though we cannot affirm that such an assumption is based upon the usual practice of the authors and publishers of English text-books.

We regret to say that since the above review was prepared, we have been obliged to insert the word "late" before the name of Prof. Stewart in its opening sentence; he died suddenly on the 21st of December last in the sixty-first year of his age. We are, however, glad to notice that the third and concluding volume of the joint work was left "in an advanced state of preparation," and its plan had been so clearly marked out in the two volumes already published that we do not doubt his collaborator, Mr. Gee, will be able to give it to the world in substantially the form it would have had had Prof. Stewart lived to see it through the press.

The Principles of the Art of Conversation. By J. P. Mahaffy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1888.

Mr. Mahaffy likens conversation to rhetoric and logic, and attempts to state its principles, as if these were capable of being taught; and he really succeeds in making a little formal disquisition so ingeniously systematic as to impose on one for an analytical and expository treatise. But, as a matter of fact, he has written a much more engaging thing than a scientific inquiry into the first principles of a new art; he is interested in improving the natural social gifts of men and women, in getting them to talk together with more pleasure to one another, and in warning them of the shoals and reefs on which conversation is commonly wrecked in small and large companies. His suggestions are general, but instructive; his observations are entertaining, and this, if he is to be taken literally, is of much more importance. He adopts, without reservation, the view that social gatherings are for amusement; the chief end of man in company is to please, and the other purposes of his being, if he has any, must be swallowed up in this or be laid aside for the nonce. Conversation, under this rule, is a department of manners, and lives by the vigor of the one great social virtue, which is to please at all costs. If the lion tyrannizes, or the old raconteur drags, or the youth is aggressive, then failure begins to set in; the subject may be all important, the specialist still be instructive, and novel facts and apposite illustrations still be elicited, but if the company tires, socially speaking, there is an end of everything.

In the author's anxiety to protect us from being bored, he pushes his zeal for the cause of mere entertainment to all lengths. He has a few paragraphs on "stupid truthfulness" even, and shields himself behind Aristotle in declaring that a too great regard for veracity spoils conversation. He quotes with approval the wit who pronounced it the golden rule of talk "to know nothing accurately," and at last rises to the height of the occasion with the remark that "to ask, Is that really true? or to exclaim, Really, that is too much to expect us to believe! shows that the objector is a blockhead unfit for any amusing conversation." But not to commit those two unpardonable errors of dwelling too long upon a topic, or of taking an extreme statement too seriously, surely, although to please be one great end of conversation, as it is of life generally, nothing will be lost by taking care in regard to the means by which we please when that is a conscious aim. The man who is heightening and coloring what is on its face a description of facts, merely to make himself more amusing, is a poor spectacle, and no one respects him at the time when he is known to be playing the trick. The matter of openly doubting the veracity of any one who is speaking is another question, involving a different *sort of propriety*; but the practice of mixing truth and fiction according to the taste of the company is a most insidious habit, and opens the way to all kinds of that injustice to persons which ranges from humorous gossip to hateful scandal. Truth is a good enough friend to be borne with, even when "stupid."

Is it so very clear, after all, that to please is the chief end of social man? In a general way, of course, every one consents to the dictum as a truism; but Mr. Mahaffy is in search of a philosophy of the matter, and has, besides, a knack for ulterior analysis, and more exact ideas may be fairly required of him. He seems to us to save himself after the fashion of most stoics who divert themselves at odd moments with playing at being epicureans: he has a standard of pleasures, and into these a moral element enters with controlling force. The society which he has ideally in view is cultivated, intelligent, curious, alert, and as pure as could be expected; the subjects which interest it must have value of some sort in order to get discussed at all. The qualities which distinguish this society are enumerated as modesty, simplicity, unselfishness, sympathy, and tact; the shy man and the blunt man are ruled out as impracticable, and he who is silent because of his timid vanity is excommunicated without grace. Women especially are given an independent and respected position, gallantry towards them in the old style is declared to be vulgar now, and it is insisted on as a prime point that they should meet and be met with on the same mental plane as men. In short, here are the tastes, culture, knowledge, and manners of a high civilization, and to please such a society might well be made an aim of our conversation and of our life also, if we were only sure that society is practically such. Here and there in this text, however, are enough indications of the weaknesses of these cultivated groups; it is plain that one would find himself talking gossip and scandal, and permitting whatever has lost its grossness in the alembic of witty words, if he consents to take for his sole rule and guide the knowledge of what will most please. And what shall be said of a "principle" that cannot be applied to all places in which the "art" in question is practised? Where lower tastes prevail and coarser pleasures are most relished, the talk, governed by this criterion of "what pleases" merely, may be mean, cruel, or foul, or whatever of wickedness that unruly member, the tongue, can compass. "To please" is the end of every fine art, but much deeper probing is required to disclose their nature; and so it is with conversation.

Independently of these general questions, which must be touched on of necessity in a volume of first principles, Mr. Mahaffy's dissertation is a very practical and useful one. His treatment is light, but thorough, and he pursues his subject with unflagging spirit through all its compass. Host and guests may equally learn from him. The modifications of attitude and approach consequent on differences of years, station, or education, the availability of general and special knowledge, books, reminiscences, and *la chronique scandaleuse*, as topics, and all such matters, are examined with critical discrimination. Suggestions are cleverly and frankly made. The author fairly wins a hearing for himself. Yet, after all this laborious inquiry into the proper conversational behavior of a mature man or woman to a monarch or a tradesman, a cricketer or a débutante, a Nestor of the old régime or the last arrival from Bechuanaland, one feels that the discussion has gone on in a make-believe place, because of the variety of human character which limits the theorizing. The art, like that of politics, is in its practice too specific for any but the vaguest rules. It comes to little else than this, at the end of Mr. Mahaffy's interesting lecture, that an amiable man will endeavor to discover what freemasonry there is between himself and his chance acquaintance wherein they can meet equally, and will then engage the other's mind with what is welcome to it, and in his own turn will be willing to accept the same treatment, and all the while he will maintain the character habitual to him. The style in which he will do this depends on temperament, early training, and national usages rather than on book instruction; in this case, preëminently, the style is the man. But if Mr. Mahaffy leads his readers to expend a leisure hour of reflection on the use of the tongue, which is a subject not too much thought about, his somewhat worldly sermon will have gone to its work.

Story of the Old Willard House, of Deerfield, Mass. By Catharine B. Yale. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 4to. 1887.

One must read between the lines to gather from this paper, read a year ago before the Pocumtuck Valley Memorial Association, that Mrs. Yale is describing her present home. The old house has repaid the conscientious workmanship bespoken for it by its builder, resisting the assaults of time, remaining both habitable and attractive, and connecting itself in its continuous occupation with many notable New England families and events. The northeast wing antedates the Indian burning of the town in 1704, the then owner's wife and six children being carried off captive: "one child was killed, the rest were taken to Canada, one came back, two were known to have married Indians." The second owner's son, born in the house, was the father of Ethan Allen. The Manse was built by Joseph Barnard in 1768, after thirteen years had been spent in selecting the timber, and the head carpenter was probably the great-grandfather of Mr. D. R. Locke, better known as the cross-roads humorist, "Petroleum V. Nasby." Joseph's son, Samuel Barnard, graduated from Harvard in 1762, and was sent up to the General Court in 1773 by a town meeting which listened to a paper on the wickedness of the slave-trade — one of the forthcoming counts against George the Third in Thomas Jefferson's rough draft of the Declaration. He married Abigail Upham, doubtless of the Salem family, and their three oldest daughters were married on one day at the Manse in 1792. Two years later the house was sold to a great-grandson of the Rev. John Williams, the famous "Redeemed Captive" of Indian story. The purchaser was another Harvard graduate, and in 1807 leased the house to Hosea Hildreth, preceptor of the old Deerfield

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Academy; and during his occupancy a third and yet more distinguished Harvard graduate was born to him there—Richard Hildreth, the historian of the United States. Mrs. Hildreth was the aunt of the late George Fuller, the artist, called by Mrs. Yale "Deerfield's most illustrious citizen." In 1811 the Manse passed into the hands of the Rev. Samuel Willard, who lived in it till 1859, with an interval of seven years. He was a nephew of Joseph Willard, President of Harvard, and graduated himself at that college in 1803. The conflict over his ordination in Deerfield "was really the beginning of the 'Unitarian movement in Western Massachusetts,' as this theological departure was called." Of this estimable man and his family Mrs. Yale is able to make a substantial presentation. Among their guests were the great lights of the denomination, radical and conservative—Channing, who was often there, Henry Ware, father and son, John Pierpont, Francis Parkman, father of the historian, Emerson—along with our friends the Lymans of Northampton. For the period following 1859 Mrs. Yale gives no precise dates. A temporary resident, at a time when the house seems to have been let to more than one family, was Jonathan A. Saxton, from Harvard again, a contributor to the *Dial*, and father of Gen. Saxton, military governor of Beaufort, S. C., in 1864—in contrast to another inmate, the Rev. Rodolphus Dickinson (Yale, 1805), who had been a pastor of John C. Calhoun at Greenville, S. C.

Mrs. Yale's well-written narrative is pleasantly tinged with sentiment and antiquarianism, and is illustrated by pen drawings of the Manse and its members. The typography is open and elegant, and the thin volume has an appropriate shape for the parlor table. Still, a better conception of the mode of publication would, in our view, have been a smaller volume, of a shape fit for the shelf, if not even for the pocket, with etchings or photogravures in place of the present designs.

La Noble Leçon. Texte original d'après le MS. de Cambridge, avec les variantes des MSS. de Genève et de Dublin. Publié par Édouard Montet. 4to. Paris. 1888.

PROFESSOR MONTET of the University of Geneva has already earned the gratitude of all students of the religious development of Europe by his 'Histoire littéraire des Vaudois du Piémont,' in which he gave a careful analysis of the existing remains of Waldensian literature as preserved in the MSS. of Cambridge, Dublin, Geneva, Strassburg, and other libraries. That work was the most important contribution as yet made to the accurate knowledge of the gradual evolution of the Waldensian beliefs, and served to dispel many errors which had been commonly entertained on the subject. He has now placed scholars under renewed obligations by a critical edition of the most notable of Waldensian writings, founded on the oldest and best existing MS., with the variants of the others. This he accompanies with a current French translation, and with two versions executed by MM. Chabrand and Vilielm, in the modern patois of the valley of Quévas and the Val San Martino. These afford a valuable opportunity for philological comparison, and one can only hope that on some future occasion M. Montet may be induced to print the extended investigation of the various Waldensian dialects, and their variations from the earliest times, which he had prepared to accompany the present work.

The 'Noble Leçon' has been deservedly the object of much interest. In a poem of less than five hundred lines it embodies an abstract of God's dealings with man as revealed in Scripture, and presents the belief and moral teachings which were deemed essential by the Christians of the Waldensian valleys. Its noble simplicity and earnestness reflect the purity of faith and morals to which the persecuted saints so often sealed their devotion with their blood, and there are few remains of the Middle Ages which give to the inquirer a clearer insight into the thoughts and aspirations of the period. What that period was has been the subject of prolonged controversy. The one weakness of the Waldenses was the belief that their sect dated back to the times of Pope Silvester I., and that they could trace an unbroken descent from the purity of the primitive Church. There was thus a temptation to antedate all their monuments, and show that they had a well-defined faith before Peter Waldo, about 1170, commenced his missionary work. One MS. of the 'Noble Leçon' reads, in the seventh line, "Ben ha mil e cent ans cumpli entierament," which was held to show that the poem was composed about the year 1100 A. D. Modern researches, however, have brought to light older MSS., in which the line reads "Ben ha mil e cccc. ans," and the best codex of all bears an erasure before the word "cent," in which the figure "4" had evidently existed originally, thus settling the date of production as in the neighborhood of the commencement of the fifteenth century—a conclusion harmonizing with the internal evidence of the poem and now generally accepted by scholars. M. Montet gives photographs of the passage in the four existing MSS., and his arguments to prove the correctness of this view will be generally received as final.

In an appendix he prints an abstract of a lately discovered Waldensian MS. now in the public library of Dijon, containing a number of tracts of much interest. The whole work is one which will be warmly welcomed by scholars as in every way worthy of his distinguished reputation.

Elizabeth Gilbert and her Work for the Blind. By Frances Martin, author of 'Angélique Arnauld,' etc., etc. Macmillan & Co.

THIS is another variation of a common theme—the development of faculty through limitation. Elizabeth Gilbert was born at Oxford, where her father was Principal of Brasenose College, in 1826. In her third year an attack of scarlet fever destroyed her sight, and bequeathed to her a general inheritance of ruined health. Throughout her childhood and her youth she was not unhappy, her misfortune attracting to her a great deal of sympathy and attention. It was when she came to the threshold of womanhood that the difference between her life and that of her several sisters came home to her with agonizing force. Then, in a happy hour, after a period of intense depression, threatening to shake her reason from its seat, she fell under the influence of Miss Bathurst, "one of the little band of so-called 'advanced' women who, about this time, 1850, were interested in every movement having for its object the development and intellectual culture of women, and the throwing open to them of some career other than matrimony," since that was evidently not possible or even desirable for all. Miss Bathurst's high enthusiasm was contagious, and communicated itself to her young relative and friend. Summoning to her aid an assistant teacher in the St. John's Wood School for the Blind, Miss Gilbert set up in a cellar in New Turnstile, Holborn, a shop for the sale of baskets made by blind persons, eight of whom had part in the original enterprise—one at the bleaching bin in the cellar, who in 1887 was still in the employ of the institution which engaged his services in 1854. Miss Gilbert had learned that it was not sufficient to give the blind a little education and a little skill in handicraft, and then turn them off upon the tender mercies of mankind. The most of them soon came to beggary when treated so. They must have shops of their own and special agencies for selling their goods. The cellar in Holborn was soon outgrown. An association was formed for carrying on the work. A letter from Miss Gilbert to the Queen brought £50, and set a good example. Miss Gilbert's father was now Bishop of Chichester, and had many influential friends, of whom Miss Gilbert availed herself with much discretion. So the good work went on. "Don't work yourself to death," a friend said to her one day. "I'm working myself to life," she answered with a laugh.

In 1866 the balance sheet of the association showed receipts amounting to £7,632. There were other signs of encouragement. The success of the London enterprise raised up a steadily increasing number of similar associations in Great Britain, and a report of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind brought to Miss Gilbert the assurance that her name was known and honored, and that her work was bearing fruit, on this side of the Atlantic. Before her death there were large and well-appointed workshops in almost every city of England, where blind men and women were employed, where tools had been invented or modified for them, and where agencies had been established for the sale of their work. Each success opened out into some new beginning, and she had just set her heart upon a scheme for the better education of the blind children of the poor, which no doubt her energy would have pushed to some successful issue, when her health, always miserable, showed signs of a complete collapse. Her years of painful invalidism were cheered by constant interest in a work so well established that it could go on without her guiding hand, and by the gratitude of many to whom she had been a priceless friend.

Miss Martin's book can hardly be considered an effective presentation of Miss Gilbert's life and work. It is much too long, and contains a good deal of matter that is not relevant and rather mars than helps the one impression it was most desirable to make. But in and between the lines we read the story of a life saved from misery and despair by its consecration to the welfare of other lives equally marred and less protected than Miss Gilbert's own. It will be strange if such a story does not rebuke the selfishness of some who are in full possession of their health, their senses, and their intellectual powers.

Ancient Nahuatl Poetry: Containing the Nahuatl text of xxvii ancient Mexican poems, with a translation, introduction, notes, and vocabulary. By David G. Brinton, M. D., Professor of American Linguistics and Archæology in the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: D. G. Brinton. 1887.

THIS is the seventh volume of Brinton's "Library of Aboriginal American Literature." By publishing the Nahuatl text of these songs, Dr. Brinton has rendered a lasting service to American ethnology and linguistics. Similar native improvisations are found among many tribes, and even among such as stand on a much lower level of apparent culture than

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did the Nahuatl-speaking Indians of Mexico, and it is to be hoped that students living among the Indians themselves will strive to follow the example set by Dr. Brinton in giving to the scientific world the original versions as far as possible. We may then also hope for an appreciation of native poetry according to its true value, for there is a wide difference between interpretations of it on the one hand from manuscripts, and on the other by one who has heard it from the natives themselves, and to whom they explained it according to their own conceptions and manner of thought. The Nahuatl Indian still improvises to-day in his native language. He will, also, while playing the guitar or the psalterio, fit in, so to say, "couplets" on the spur of the moment.

Although some doubts arise as to the antiquity of certain of the twenty-seven songs given by Dr. Brinton, there cannot be the slightest doubt as to their being *genuine Indian productions*, those attributed to Nezahualcoyotl perhaps excepted. In regard to these, objections occur which it is not the place here to consider. In this last volume, as well as in all of Dr. Brinton's previous works, it is much to be regretted that the learned author has not had an opportunity as yet of becoming intimately acquainted with the true nature of the American native through long personal contact. Such an amount of practical knowledge would greatly enhance the value of his meritorious efforts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adventures of Baron Munchausen. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Alexander, Mrs. Mona's Choice. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Amherst Alpha Delta Phi. 1837–1887. Flemming, Brewster & Alley.
Anderson, R. B. Nordisk Mythologi. Oversættelse ved Dr. Fr. Winkel Horn. Christiania: A. Cammermeyer.
Ballou, M. M. Under the Southern Cross; or, Travels in Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Samoa, and Other Pacific Islands. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Bannatyne, D. J. Handbook of Republican Institutions in the United States. Scribner & Welford.
Barnard, C. First Steps in Electricity. For the Instruction of Young People. Charles E. Merrill & Co. 75 cents.
Bellamy, E. Looking Backward. 2000–1887. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Binet and Féré. Animal Magnetism. D. Appleton & Co.
Bingham, Capt. D. The Bastille. Scribner & Welford. 2 vols.
Bolles, A. S. The National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning. Homans Publishing Co. $3.
Brown, Dr. F. H. The Medical Register for New England. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Chesterfield, Lord. Letters, Sentences, and Maxims. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Colvin, S., and Ewing, J. A. Papers, Literary, Scientific, etc., by the late Fleeming Jenkin. Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols, $10.50.
Comegys, B. B. An Order of Worship and Forms of Prayer for Divine Service. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Conant, F. O. History and Genealogy of the Conant Family in England and America. Portland, Me.
Darwin, C. Journal of Researches into the Natural History and Geology of the Countries Visited during the Voyage of H. M. S. *Beagle* Round the World. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.50.
Daudet, A. Trente ans de Paris. Paris: Marpon & Flammarion; Boston: Schoenhof.
Davies, Rev. D. S. Manual of Sonography. A New Joined-Vowel Script System of Shorthand. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Faguet, E. Notices littéraires sur les Auteurs français. Paris: Lecène & Oudin; Boston: Schoenhof.
Fairbank, H. W. The School Album: New Songs for Day Schools. Chicago: S. R. Winchell. 30 cents.
Fenn, G. M. The Story of Antony Grace. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Franzos, K. E. For the Right. Harper & Bros.
Froude, J. A. The English in the West Indies: or, the Bow of Ulysses. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Harper's Bazar. Vol. XX. 1887.
Harper's Monthly. Vols. LXXIV, LXXV. 1887.
Harper's Weekly. Vol. XXXI. 1887.
Harper's Young People. Vol. VIII. 1887.
Harris, Amanda B. American Authors for Young Folks. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Hastie, W. Outlines of the Science of Jurisprudence. Translated and Edited from the Juristic Cyclopædias of Puchta, Friedländer, Falck, and Ahrens. Scribner & Welford.
Hogan, Katherine E. A Popular Mineralogy and Geology. A. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Hosmer, H. L. Bacon and Shakespeare in the Sonnets. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
Howard, J. R. Patriotic Addresses in America and England, from 1850 to 1885, on Slavery, the Civil War, and the Development of Civil Liberty in the United States. By Henry Ward Beecher. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Howells, W. D. A Fearful Responsibility. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Hugo, V. Dramatic Works. Hernani, The King's Diversion, Ruy Blas. Scribner & Welford.
Irving, H., and Marshall, F. A. Shakespere's Works. Vol. I. Scribner & Welford.
Jennings, Rev. A. C. A Manual of Church History. Vol. I. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Lesseps, F. de. Recollections of Forty Years. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $5.
Linderfelt, K. A. Volapük: An Easy Method of Acquiring the Universal Language. Milwaukee: C. N. Caspar.
Lyra Christiana: A Treasury of Sacred Poetry. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.25.
Macdonald, G. Home Again. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Müller, F. M. Biographies of Words and the Home of the Aryas. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Oliver J. A. W. Astronomy for Amateurs. A Practical Manual of Telescopic Research in all Latitudes. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Pearson, F. W. Miñon: A Tale of Love and Intrigue. The Welles Co. 50 cents.
Queen Money. By the Author of 'The Story of Margaret Kent.' Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. The Nun's Curse. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Saint-Pierre, B. de. Paul and Virginia. W. S. Gottsberger.
Sargeant, Adeline. Roy's Repentance: A Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Sauveur, L. Corrigé des Exercices de la Petite Grammaise Française pour les Anglais. F. W. Christern.
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